CANADIAN CIVICS

R. S. JENKINS

NEW BRUNSWICK EDITION

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CANADIAN CIVICS

BY

R. S. JENKINS, M.A.,

Honour all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honour the King.—*Bible.*

NEW BRUNSWICK EDITION

TORONTO:
THE COPP CLARK COMPANY, LIMITED

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Toronto Ontario

PREFACE TO NEW EDITION.

It seems now hardly necessary to plead the cause of civics in the schools. On the other hand, there is needed a fuller discussion of the methods of teaching the subject. It is generally agreed that no text-book is required during the early years of the public school course. The child will gain an idea of what government is by examples drawn from the home and the school. As he grows older he can be taught to observe some of the work of government as performed by the municipality. He may see what roads are being made or improved, what side-walks are being put down, and what protects the community from the danger of fire. But beyond the municipal field he cannot very well proceed by direct observation. New principles appear. The whole area of government becomes extraordinarily complex. The discipline of the party system, the solidarity of the cabinet, the parallel activities of parliament and legislature, and the glamour of the monarchical tradition have to be studied definitely like new processes in arithmetic or new chapters in history. It will be seen that the chief aim of this book is to help the pupil at this stage of his progress. The larger part of the text is devoted to an explanation of the federal system and its relation to the provincial system. Topics XII–XIV are added for the purpose of reference and completeness, and for the use of senior pupils and study clubs.

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CANADIAN CIVICS.

PART I.—NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC I.

The Outside Nations and the Empire.

1. The Nations.

When we look abroad upon the world, we observe that it has numerous divisions which bear the name of "countries" and which are occupied by "nations." Some of these divisions are large, such as the United States and Russia, while others are small, such as Switzerland and Greece. But we must not estimate power and importance solely by extent of territory. Thus Germany, though occupying a portion of Europe of only moderate area, is regarded as one of the great nations of the world.

There are, however, very few countries strong enough to defend themselves successfully against a foreign foe. The weaker nations owe their independence sometimes to the sense of justice of the more powerful, but more often to the

mutual jealousy existing among these latter. None is willing to see any of its neighbours grow very strong. Consequently, if a smaller country is invaded by a more powerful one there is probability that outside assistance will be given the former in one way or another.

Thus efforts are constantly being made to preserve what is commonly called the "balance of power." The stronger nations of the world are known as the "great powers." They are Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austro-Hungary, Russia, United States and Japan.

2. The Kinds of Government.

After what has been said, we can describe in a general way what a "nation" is. It is a united body of people occupying a certain territory which is called a "country." Further, matters are so arranged that one man, or a small group of men, acts as its head, and is its highest representative in its dealings with other nations. Now the question is, how can a very large number of people, in some cases hundreds of millions, be induced to act together so that they will form one nation? The answer

is that this result is brought about by what is called "government," and we shall be studying in this book what our government is and how it holds our nation together.

To us in our day it would seem quite natural for a number of persons to agree to work together and to help one another in many ways, such as giving aid in defence against enemies, forming treaties with friends, and building roads and bridges or making other improvements. But we learn from history that the present arrangements by which these and many other things are done, were arrived at only after centuries of effort. Moreover, some nations have not made as much progress in government as we, and we ourselves, we shall see, have not yet reached perfection.

If we read history and observe how governments have grown up, we shall be inclined to place them in two classes. One class will include those in which the head of the nation, generally called a king or an emperor, is always a member of a particular family, and in which the son, no matter what sort of man he may be, usually

succeeds the father. This kind of government is called "monarchical," and it is that of Great Britain and Germany. The other kind of government is the "republican," where the head, often known as the "president," is chosen from the general body of the people by the citizens themselves or by persons directly representing them. This is the form existing in the United States and France. It is worthy of note that often men who are born poor and in a humble position rise to be presidents of the republics.

The better division, however, is into the two classes, "despotic" and "popular." In a despotic government, the ruler and a small group of men associated with him carry on the business of the nation without consulting the wishes of the people, while, in a popular government, the rulers, whoever they may be, must govern as the people wish. The government of Great Britain is monarchical and popular, while that of the United States is republican and popular. There are not many purely despotic governments now in the world, but some of the monarchical

governments of Asia and Africa and some of the republican governments of South America still belong to that class.

3. The Empire and the Colonies.

The name "Great Britain" is ordinarily used as the short form for the full title, "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland." Great Britain is the ruling state, or division, in the Empire to which we belong. In dealings with other nations, except in commercial and some other matters, Great Britain acts for the whole Empire. Divisions of the Empire, such as Canada, may have representatives in making treaties and arrangements with other nations on any matter which closely concerns them. But these are appointed as representatives of Great Britain as well, and are considered as such by foreign states.

It is plain that at present a great change is going on in the Empire. Some think that after a time the several divisions that are in the same position as ourselves, will be placed on an equal footing with the ruling division, Great Britain, and that some way will be devised of

making them all work together as one nation, when dealing with the rest of the world. Others believe that this plan of "allied nations" is not practicable, and that, if we try to carry it out, it will lead to the breaking up of the Empire. Here is one of our great problems and no one yet can see a good solution.

Our Empire is not an "empire" in the strict sense of the term. It has received this name solely on account of its enormous size, for its head is not an emperor but a king. Though the king is called an emperor as well, it is only as the ruler of India that he has a right to the title.

All the divisions of the Empire, except the British Isles and India, were originally called "colonies," or settlements, because emigrants went from Great Britain to take up land, or *settle*, in them. All of them were at first governed by men whom Great Britain appointed for the purpose. The colonists had very little to do with the management of their own public affairs.

But afterwards those colonies which possessed a sufficiently large and suitable population were

allowed to govern themselves, and they have all established popular forms of government as much like that of Great Britain as possible. Such colonies have long been known as self-governing colonies, but they have lately received the special name of "dominions." This is the name which we chose when we united the separate colonies of Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia into one large country, the Dominion of Canada.

The word "colony" we do not like, and we usually speak of ourselves as a "nation." Some object to the name "nation," because it ordinarily means an "independent nation" or "sovereign state," and we do not claim to be that, but desire to be part of the Empire. Its use may be defended, because it is the nearest suitable word for a new condition of affairs, and we give the term a special meaning, just as the people of the United States have given a special meaning to the word "state." A "state" like New York is not an independent state, but is subject to the government of the whole United States at Washington. The chief "dominions" in the Empire besides Canada, are Australia

(called "Commonwealth)," New Zealand, Newfoundland, and Union of South Africa.

On the other hand, the colonies which have not a population suitable for self-government, as those situated in the tropics where the native races are not highly civilized, are placed, either wholly or partly, under the administration of persons chosen by Great Britain. Such are called "crown colonies."

But sometimes native races are left under their own rulers, Great Britain maintaining a general oversight through a specially appointed representative. This kind of government is known as a "protectorate." An example is Egypt, which has its own native ruler or Sultan, as he is called. This country formerly belonged to Turkey, but was finally made a part of our Empire during the Great War.

It may be said that in the British Empire there is every kind of government, from the most highly popular to the most despotic. But whatever may be the form, Great Britain

endeavours to administer it in such a manner as to make possible for each of the vast number of races and tribes under the imperial sway the greatest amount of happiness and prosperity.

NOTES.—The name "Great Britain" has been employed throughout. But it is to be observed that the name "England" is often used for the whole "United Kingdom," because of its being that of the largest division. The term "Britain" is also employed. "Imperial Government" is frequently used for "Government of Great Britain" or "British Government," because it is the supreme or highest government of the Empire. "Greater Britain" is a common newspaper term for the colonies. Its origin is obvious. The actual title of the king is: "George the Fifth, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

QUESTIONS.

1. What nations are called the "great powers"? Why are they so called?

2. What does "government" do for the nation?

3. Mention and describe the chief kinds of government.

4. What is an empire? Why do we call the British Empire by that name?

5. What are "crown colonies," "protectorates," and "dominions"? Give examples of each.

6. Read over and try to understand the lines quoted from Shakespeare

ENGLAND.

This royal throne of kings, this sceptered isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise,
This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands,
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England

—Shakespeare, King Richard II, Act II, Sc. 1

TOPIC II.

THE DOMINION AND THE PROVINCES.

1. Federal System of Government.

Our system of government is what is known as a confederation, and in this respect it resembles that of the United States and Australia and differs from that of Great Britain and France. The settled part of Canada is divided into nine provinces, each having a government of its own.

A provincial government has the duty of looking after certain definite matters which concern the province alone, and which it is believed can best be managed by such a body of local men familiar with local needs. In a country of vast extent such as ours, the provinces differ very much from one another, in their position, some being on the sea and others inland; in their physical features, some being mountainous and others consisting of prairie; and in their inhabitants, some containing chiefly people whose ancestors came from the British Isles, others possessing a more mixed population, and one, Quebec, having a great majority of persons of French descent. Consequently, it is plain that with respect to many things laws must be different in different provinces in order to suit the varying conditions.

On the other hand, all matters which were thought by the founders of our constitution to concern the whole body of Canadians, or those about which it was felt more suitable laws could be made by a group of men representing the entire country, were left to be managed

by a central government, usually called the Dominion or Federal Government.

2. Subjects of Dominion Legislation.

Now in order that there should be no doubt as to which government, Dominion or provincial, had the right to make laws in regard to particular matters, it was agreed that the Dominion should deal with everything which was not expressly assigned to the control of the provinces. Then "for greater certainty" there was drawn up the following list of subjects about which the government of the Dominion alone has the power to "legislate" (that is, make laws):

(1) The public debt and property, (2) trade and commerce, (3) the raising of money by any kind of taxation, (4) the borrowing of money, (5) the postal service, (6) the taking of the census, (7) military and naval matters, (8) the payment of the "civil service," that is, the clerks and other officials employed by the government, (9) lighthouses, (10) navigation and shipping, (11) quarantine and marine hospitals, (12) fisheries, (13) ferries, except when

entirely within a province, (14) currency and coinage, (15) banking and paper money, (16) savings banks, (17) weights and measures, (18) bills of exchange and promissory notes, (19) interest, (20) legal tender, that is, what shall be accepted as money in payment for anything, (21) bankruptcy, (22) patents for inventions, (23) copyrights on books, etc., (24) Indians and Indian lands, (25) naturalization, that is, the giving of the rights of citizenship to foreigners, (26) marriage and divorce, (27) the criminal law, except the constitution of the courts of law, (28) penitentiaries, (29) matters expressly stated as not belonging to the provinces.

3. Subjects of Provincial Legislation.

To the provincial governments has been assigned the definite list of subjects given below. They cannot legislate about any matter not mentioned in this list; but they alone can legislate about those which are included in it. The list is,

(1) The changing of the constitution of the province, except in regard to the office of

lieutenant-governor, (2) direct taxation, (3) the borrowing of money for the province, (4) the civil service of the province, (5) the public lands, if the province owns its lands, (6) the prisons and reformatories of the province, (7) hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions, (8) municipal institutions, (9) licenses such as those of taverns, shops, and auctioneers, (10) local works and undertakings, except lines of steamships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings extending outside the province, and such works which, although wholly inside the province, are declared by the Dominion parliament to be for the general advantage of Canada, (11) the incorporation of companies for business in the province, (12) the solemnization of marriage, (13) property and civil rights, (14) the administration of justice and procedure in civil matters in the courts, (15) punishment by fine and imprisonment, in case any provincial law is broken, and (16) generally all matters of a merely local or private nature.

The subject of education must be added to this provincial list. But if a province before

it entered confederation has passed laws to establish separate schools, it must always allow these schools to be carried on. Consequently, the Roman Catholics of Ontario and the Protestants of Quebec can never be forced to give up the separate schools which they at present possess. Further, the subjects of agriculture and immigration may be dealt with by both the Dominion and the provinces. But if the Dominion law and the provincial law do not agree in whole or in part, the Dominion law is the one which has force.

What happens if a province enacts a law on a subject with which it has no right to deal? If a person breaks such a law, can he be punished? He can allow the matter to go to trial in a court, and it is there determined whether the province has a right to enact such a law or not. If the province has no such right, the person wins his case and cannot be punished. In very important matters a suit of this kind will be carried from a lower court to a higher, until it is finally decided by the highest court in the Empire, the Privy Council in England.

4. Dominion Control of Provincial Legislation.

But there is another way by which not only a law beyond the right of a province to make, but even one which comes within its right, can be entirely set aside. This is to be found in what is known as the power of "disallowance." The Dominion government may, if it desires, "disallow," or set aside, any provincial law, provided that it does so within a year after receiving a copy of such law from the province. This is a power which should not be used very often, because it is very natural for the people of a province to resent what looks like too much interference with their own local affairs.

5. Imperial Control of Dominion Legislation.

The government of Great Britain has likewise the right to disallow a law enacted by the Dominion, if it is considered that this law will cause injury to the Empire, is contrary to treaties that have been made with foreign nations, or is beyond the right of our parliament to pass.

6. Uncertainties as to Dominion and Provincial Powers.

Now it may seem as if everything had been carefully provided for, so that no dispute could ever arise between a province and the Dominion in regard to the subjects about which they have a right to legislate. But it is just here that some of the greatest difficulties have been encountered. Many matters were not carefully enough stated in the constitution, and, as a consequence, the courts have had to do a great deal of work in determining whether the Dominion or the provinces have the power to legislate in certain cases. For example, one of the very important questions for a long time in doubt was, how far the provinces could go in making laws about the sale of intoxicating liquors. This question has been at last decided, and it is now known that the provinces are allowed to restrict and practically to prohibit the sale in certain well-defined ways.

In concluding this topic, we may observe that the laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than

have the laws of the Dominion. For what our city or other local municipality asks from us or does for us, how our schools are conducted, how property is kept or sold, and a vast number of such matters as most intimately concern us, all depend upon the laws, good or bad, which our province makes.

NOTE.—The "constitution" is the name given to the whole body or collection of rules in accordance with which the government of a country is conducted. In Great Britain these rules are not anywhere written out together in one document. They are gathered from what British governments have done in the past even back to distant ages, and have come to be pretty well understood. If there is doubt as to what to do in a particular case, or if there really is no rule, a certain decision is adopted by the government as to the matter. This decision may lead up to a new rule for the future, and is called a "precedent." In the United States, however, a great number of the rules of government are written out in a formal document, and are changed rarely and with difficulty. So we speak of Great Britain as having an "unwritten" constitution, and of the United States as having largely a "written" constitution. Canada has a written constitution in the "British North America Act," which was passed by the parliament of Great Britain at our request in 1867, so that the various separate provinces of those days might be formed into a union or "confederation," and be able to work together with a federal government over them all. But there are a multitude of points which our written constitution does not cover, and so we follow and establish precedents as well, and also go back to the precedents set by the governments of Great Britain.

Questions.

1. Why is the federal system of government suitable for Canada?

2. Tell in a general way what classes of subjects come under the jurisdiction of the Dominion and of the provincial governments. Illustrate your answer by examples.

3. To what extent can the provinces deal with the subjects of education and immigration?

4. How can the Dominion control the legislation of the provinces? How can Great Britain control Dominion legislation?

5. What difficulty has arisen in the working of our federal system?

6. What is meant by the "constitution"? What is a "precedent"?

7. Write a composition taking as your subject the thought contained in the following lines:

The State.

What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or laboured mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.

No! men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude,—
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain.

—*William Jones.*

TOPIC III.

How the Laws are Made.

1. Legislation.

In the government of a country there are three kinds of work to be done. One is the making of the laws, and another is the carrying out of the laws. The third kind of work is that which the courts do in deciding what the law is in particular cases that are brought before them.

Let us for the present consider only the first kind of work, the making of the laws. We may well do so, because in our country the men who carry out the laws are also among those who make the laws. In the United States, on the other hand, the men who carry out the laws,

namely, the president and his cabinet, may have little part in making them.

2. Parliament.

The body of men who legislate for the Dominion is called the "parliament" of Canada. Parliament consists of the king and the two houses of parliament, the Senate and the House of Commons. The king cannot, of course, be present here in Canada, and so some one is appointed to act for him. This representative of the king is known as the governor-general. Yet it must always be remembered that the king is considered to be the direct ruler of Canada. All laws are made in his name, and not in that of the governor-general. Moreover, the governor-general is said to give not his own but the king's assent to a bill, before it becomes law.

3. Governor-General.

The governor-general is appointed by the British government, and is generally some well known man in Great Britain. He is usually a member of the House of Lords. No Canadian has ever been appointed, but it cannot be said that any rule has been made as yet in regard

to the matter. Some day the question will come up for decision, and there will be a precedent set either for or against the appointment of a Canadian to this high office.

The governor-general acts towards the houses of parliament of Canada in exactly the same way as the king acts towards the houses of parliament of Great Britain. The king nowadays has no power to do anything but what the houses of parliament wish. If they pass a bill, he must assent to it.

He does not sit in either of the houses, and is quite apart from them. But the leader of the government, that is, the person whom the House of Commons is willing to obey, is expected to tell the king about all important matters that are being discussed in parliament. The king can give advice to the leader of the government, and can warn him, if he thinks that he is leading parliament to make mistakes, but cannot refuse to do what parliament wishes. All discussions between the king and the leader of the government are kept absolutely secret. So nobody really knows what the king's opinions are.

Since he must do what parliament and its leader desire, he is never blamed if a mistake is made. Consequently, there is at the head of the nation a person who is regarded as above and beyond all the fierce struggle of politics. If the nation is dissatisfied, it blames only the leader of the government and those who support him in parliament.

Sometimes, however, our governor-general, when a bill is sent to him after it has passed the two Houses, may say that he does not give the king's assent to it, but reserves it for the king's decision, that is, of course, for the decision of the government of Great Britain. The governor-general will never reserve a bill, unless he has a good reason for so doing, such as, believing that it will be hurtful to the Empire as a whole, that it is contrary to treaties with foreign nations, or that it is beyond the right of our parliament to pass. Two years are allowed for the British government to consider whether the king's assent shall be given to a bill reserved in this way. If it is given, the bill becomes law, but, if not, the bill does not become law.

As has been mentioned before, the British government can likewise disallow a law already passed and assented to by the governor-general. So its powers are very great, but they are used carefully, or there would soon arise much ill-feeling in Canada against Britain. In the same way there would be ill-feeling in the provinces, if the Dominion government used its power of disallowance without proper care. All trouble is usually avoided, because the governments concerned earnestly strive to meet one another's views as far as possible. In the end matters can generally be arranged in a very friendly way, even when the governments have not at first been in agreement upon certain points.

4. The Senate.

It is in the houses of parliament that the laws are made; for it is now plain that the governor-general, although he is at the head of the nation, has scarcely any real power. Of the two Houses, the Senate is very much less important than the Commons. The Senate has, however, the same right of legislation as the Commons, except in one important matter. But usually it

does not try to do much work beyond accepting after more or less discussion and amendment the bills already passed by the House of Commons. Later we shall learn why it is that the Senate is not a more important parliamentary body.

5. The House of Commons.

The laws are really made in the House of Commons. The leader of the government is nearly always a member of this House and guides it in its work. If he should happen to be a member of the Senate, he must have some one recognized as the leader of the House of Commons in his place. But such an arrangement is not a safe one in our parliament. Besides the leader of the government, most of the members of his cabinet, that is, those who are directly associated with him in the government of the country, have seats in the House of Commons. We usually speak of the leader and his cabinet as the "government." They must either have the support of a majority of the members of the House of Commons, or give up their places to those who are able to obtain a majority.

It is their duty, while they are in power, to see that the laws which are necessary for carrying on the work of the nation, are properly passed by parliament. Bills introduced at the wish of the government are called "government measures." They may be brought in either by members of the government themselves or by private members in whom they have confidence. If a government measure does not pass, the government must resign or ask the governor-general to allow a new election to be held. Therefore, the defeat of a government measure in the House is a very serious matter and hardly ever happens. For the government usually finds out beforehand whether its supporters are willing to allow the bill to pass or not.

But sometimes the members of the government may feel that a certain measure which they desire to bring in, is so important that it must be placed before the House, and yet that it is in danger of being rejected. What they will probably do, will be to endeavour to put this measure, if possible, in such form

as to render it more acceptable to their followers and induce them to change their minds. Moreover, supporters of the government do not like to see their side beaten, and besides, members of the House do not usually wish to have an election held before the regular time, because elections are uncertain and expensive. Therefore, the government generally finds it an easy matter to persuade its followers to assist in passing all the legislation that is required.

In addition to the measures which the government introduces, a great many bills are brought in by private members. Some of these pass, many do not pass, while others never really come before the House at all. We shall be able to understand this part of the subject better when later we study how parliament does its work.

NOTE.—Before a proposed law has passed the houses of parliament and has been assented to by the governor-general, it is known as a "bill." Afterwards it is called an "act of parliament" or a "statute." An act of parliament may come into force as a "law," as soon as it has passed the Houses and received the royal assent, or it may be intended to come into force at a later time.

Questions.

1. What are the three kinds of work to be done in the governing of a country?

2. Of what does parliament consist?

3. By whom is the governor-general appointed? What are his duties? Who is the governor-general at the present time?

4. When may the governor-general "reserve" a bill?

5. What special meaning does the word "government" have in politics?

6. What are "government measures"?

7. What is the difference between a "bill" and an "act"?

8. Commit to memory the following lines:

You ask me, why, tho' ill at ease,
Within this region I subsist,
Whose spirits falter in the mist,
And languish for the purple seas.

It is the land that freemen till,
That sober-suited Freedom chose,
The land, where girt with friends or foes
A man may speak the thing he will;

A land of settled government,
A land of just and old renown,
Where Freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent.

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC IV.

How Parliament Does Business.

1. The Speaker.

We shall now take up more fully the study of the two houses of parliament, and see how they carry on their work and how the members of each are chosen. We shall speak chiefly of the House of Commons, and mention the Senate only when the latter differs in some important respect from the Commons.

The House of Commons is like any public meeting, and must have a chairman to see that business is conducted in a proper way. The chairman is called the "speaker." He is elected by the House, when it first meets after the parliamentary elections. He is one of the supporters of the government, because the government have the majority in the House, and thus can always secure the election of one of their own friends. But as soon as he becomes speaker, he is expected to be impartial, that is, to see that all members are fairly treated in the debates, no matter whether they are supporters of the

government or not. There is also elected a deputy or assistant speaker.

The speaker of the Senate is not elected by the Senate, but is appointed by the "governor-general-in-council," which means, as we shall find out later, the government.

2. Other Officers of the Houses.

There are certain other officers in the Houses, who are not members of parliament, but are appointed to help with the carrying on of business. For example, there is a clerk, with many assistants under him, who has charge of the journals or records of what the House has done, the translation of documents, and a great many other such matters.

Another officer in the Commons is the sergeant-at-arms, who is in some respects the policeman of the House. If a member will not obey the speaker or is disorderly, the sergeant-at-arms arrests him or has him removed. He also looks after the furniture of the House, and has charge of the pages, or little messenger boys, who wait on the members, carrying books, taking messages and the like.

It is very interesting to watch these little fellows running about on their various duties, while a meeting of the House is going on. Another duty of the sergeant-at-arms is to walk in front of the speaker on the proper occasions, carrying the mace, the symbol of the House's authority.

3. The Speech from the Throne.

Parliament must meet at least once a year. The governor-general who, as always, follows in this matter the advice of the leader of the government, sets the day for parliament to assemble. When the day comes, he himself or some person representing him, generally the Chief Justice of Canada, goes in great state to the parliament buildings, accompanied by a bodyguard of soldiers. He takes his seat on a throne in the chamber where the Senate meets, and then sends a message to the members of the House of Commons to leave their own chamber and come to the Senate.

When they arrive, he reads a short address in English and French which mentions what business the government is going to ask parliament

to do during the session. This is called the "speech from the throne." It is not written by the governor-general, as one might suppose, but by the leader of the government. When this brief ceremony is over, the governor-general goes away, and the members of the House of Commons return to their own chamber. In due time the address is discussed and a reply to it is prepared.

All these doings seem rather strange and formal to us nowadays, but they meant a great deal long ago in England. In those times the speech was a real one from the king himself, and often parliament was very unwilling to do what he desired. So the reply was then a very real thing too, and was drawn up by members sometimes at the risk of their lives. But all this is long since changed, though the old forms are still kept up.

4. Good Manners in Parliament.

While speaking in the House of Commons, a member must always address his remarks to the speaker and not to the other members. He is not allowed to call any member by his name, but

must describe him as "the honourable member for North York," or "the honourable member for Calgary," or whatever the member's constituency may be. This is done so that debates in the House may be as dignified as possible, and that members may be less tempted to say evil things of one another.

It is the duty of the speaker to check the use of all improper terms in debate. For example, no member, no matter who he may be or how much he thinks himself to be in the right, is allowed to call another member a "scoundrel." In moments of excitement members sometimes so far forget themselves as to use such violent language, but the speaker of the House always requires that an apology be made.

5. Debate.

As in any public meeting, a question is brought before the House in the form of a motion made by one member and seconded by another, except that two days before, notice must be given that such a motion will be made. In the debate on a motion each member is

allowed to speak only once. The mover is, however, permitted to reply.

But when a freer and fuller discussion is desired so that all points may be brought out, the House goes into "committee." This is always done in the case of bills, since it is advisable to have all details studied closely as a means of preventing mistakes. When the House goes into committee, the speaker leaves the chair, and the deputy speaker or a chairman presides in his place. The House may then be said to be in its "working clothes."

6. A Division.

When the debate is over, and it is uncertain whether the majority of the House is for or against the motion, a "division" is demanded. All the absent members are called in, for it is the bad habit of some of the members to remain out of the House a good deal of the time and, when summoned, to rush in to vote without having heard very much of the debate.

When all are seated, the speaker asks those who are in favour of the motion to stand. The clerks then take down the name of each member

who is standing. Next those who are against the motion are requested to rise, and their names are taken down in the same way. When the names are all counted, the speaker states that the motion has been "lost" or "carried," as the case may be. The speaker himself never takes part in the voting, unless the votes for and against a motion are exactly equal. In that case he gives his vote and decides the question.

7. The Senate and the Commons.

When a bill has passed the House of Commons, it is sent on to the Senate, which considers it in the same way as the Commons have already done. If it passes the Senate, it then goes to the governor-general to be assented to in the name of the king. Sometimes, however, the Senate makes changes in a bill, and if the two Houses cannot agree about these, the bill is dropped. But if the Houses reach an agreement, the bill is sent on to the governor-general as before.

8. Committees.

Besides the "Committee of the Whole House," which has already been mentioned, there are smaller committees, or groups of

members, chosen to consider particular bills or other matters and to report their opinion about them to the House. Each committee has its chairman, and it does its work in the same way as the committee of the whole house. If a bill does not pass the committee which has been chosen to study and discuss it, there is little probability that it will pass the House, at least during the existing session of parliament. In such a case you will probably read in the newspapers that it has been "killed in committee."

9. Supremacy of the House of Commons.

The House of Commons holds the purse of the nation, and this is the true reason why the government must have its support or resign. Unless the House is willing, no tax can be collected by the Dominion government, and no money paid out for any purpose beyond a few matters expressly mentioned in the constitution. It is evident that the work of government could not long go on, if there were no money to pay those employed in the public service, such as the clerks in the parliament buildings

and the Dominion officials throughout the country.

A bill that provides for the paying of money or the levying of a tax, must first be passed in the House of Commons. Then it is sent to the Senate, which cannot make any change in it, but must either pass it as it stands, or else reject it altogether. Further, even in the House of Commons, no private member can propose such a bill, but only a member of the government. For the government knows, or should know, how much money it needs and can ask for the proper amount, while a private member could hardly have such accurate knowledge. Besides, if the government did not have this matter entirely in its own hands, it could not fairly be blamed, when mistakes were made in levying too high a tax on the people or in paying out money improperly.

It will be seen from what has been said that the House of Commons is practically supreme. If it does not approve of what the government is doing, it can stop everything by simply shutting up the purse of the nation. But

nowadays the House has never to resort to such an extreme measure. All it has to do is to show by a vote that it no longer has "confidence" in the government, and the latter at once resigns.

10. Senators.

We shall now study how the members of parliament are chosen. A senator is appointed by the "governor-general-in-council," that is, by the government. He remains a member of the Senate so long as he lives, unless he resigns, stays away from parliament for two sessions together, leaves Canada and becomes a citizen of a foreign country, fails in business, commits a crime, or goes to reside in a province other than the one for which he has been appointed.

Before he can be chosen, he must be at least thirty years of age, be a British subject, be worth at least $4,000, and live in the province for which he is to be appointed. A Quebec senator must also live in the particular division of the province for which he is selected, or own property there. The number of Senators is

For Ontario	24
" Quebec	24
" Nova Scotia	10
" New Brunswick	10
" Prince Edward Island	4
" Manitoba	6
" Saskatchewan	6
" Alberta	6
" British Columbia	6
	96

11. Members of the House of Commons.

Members of the House of Commons are elected by the people of Canada. But not everybody has a vote. The laws about the matter differ in the different provinces, but, as a rule, all men of the full age of twenty-one years, who are British subjects and are not criminals or insane, have the right to vote. In one or two of the provinces it is necessary also to own a small amount of property, or to pay rent to a certain amount, or to fulfil some other conditions before being allowed to vote. Indians do not usually have the right to vote. In 1917 women voted for the first time in parliamentary elections.

Before a person can be elected to the House of Commons, he must be a British subject, but need not own property or live in the province or district for which he seeks to be elected. If a man who has committed a crime is elected, the House of Commons will not allow him to take his seat, and the district for which he is elected may just as well be without a representative.

12. The Number of Members in the Commons.

The number of members elected to the House of Commons in the elections of 1917 was:

For Ontario	82
" Quebec	65
" New Brunswick	11
" Nova Scotia	16
" Prince Edward Island	4
" Manitoba	15
" Saskatchewan	16
" Alberta	12
" British Columbia	13
" Yukon Territory	1
	235

The question may be asked, how is it that there were just 235 members in the House of Commons in the year 1917? We shall try to find the answer. The number of members depends on the population of the Province of Quebec. This province must, according to the constitution, always have 65 members. Then, when Quebec is given 65 members for a certain population, the other provinces are given the number that is proper for their population. If the population of another province is greater than that of Quebec, that province will have more members than Quebec. Consequently, the Province of Ontario has always had more members than Quebec. But if the population of any province is less than that of Quebec, it will have fewer members. The Province of Manitoba, for example, has always had fewer members than Quebec. So to find the number of members a province may have, is only a question in arithmetic which can be easily solved.

Now, if we take the population of Quebec and that of Ontario as a little smaller than they really are, we shall be able to have

easier numbers with which to deal. We shall, therefore, suppose that the population of Quebec is 1,950,000. The province must have 65 members, and, dividing 1,950,000 by 65, we find that it will have one member for every 30,000 people. Further, if we take the population of Ontario as 2,460,000, all we have to do in order to find the number of members to which it is entitled, is to divide this number by 30,000. The result is 82.

In the same way the number of members for each of the other provinces can be found, if we know the population. 30,000 is called in this case the "unit of representation," for it is the number of people who have a right to one member of parliament to represent them. In order to avoid fractions, we have taken an easy example, but when fractions occur, those that are less than one-half are not counted, and those over one-half are reckoned as equal to 1.

The following are additional examples to be solved: 1. The population of Quebec in 1911 was really 2,003,232, and that of Ontario 2,523,274, instead of the easier numbers we

chose. Find the unit of representation and the number of members for Ontario.

2. If the population of Quebec grows to 3,000,000, and that of British Columbia to 1,000,000, what will be the unit of representation, and the number of members which British Columbia will have?

13. Census.

The census is taken, that is, the population of Canada is counted, every ten years in those years which end in 1, as 1891, 1901, 1911. After the taking of the census, parliament passes a law to give to each province its proper number of members, and this number cannot be changed till after the next census. Some of the provinces may be assigned fewer members as the result of a new census, because the population of Quebec is growing fast and so the unit of representation is increasing. Thus Prince Edward Island came into the Dominion with 6 members, and now has only 4. But the western provinces always gain members when a change is made, because their population is increasing very rapidly.

In 1917 the number of members was reckoned according to the census of 1911. On the basis of population, Prince Edward Island should have 3 members, not 4. But by a recent provision, a province is allowed to have as many members in the Commons as it has in the Senate. Yukon Territory is given 1 member.

14. Constituencies.

Having learned how the number of members for each province is determined, we have yet to consider how the provinces are divided into districts for the election of these members. Such divisions for electoral purposes are commonly called "constituencies." Each constituency ordinarily elects one member. But sometimes, as in the case of a city like Ottawa, which is from its size entitled to have two members, no division is made, and the one large constituency is asked to elect two members.

To divide a province into the proper number of constituencies with a fairly equal population, is not an easy matter. In whatever manner it may be done, there is nearly always a great deal of complaint that the government has acted

unfairly. This subject will be taken up more fully under Topic VI.

NOTES.—A "bill," before it can pass the House, must be read three times. At the second reading debate upon it takes place.

The "Territories." Those parts of the Dominion that are not included in any of the provinces are called "territories." So long as a territory has a small population, it is governed directly by the Dominion. But as it becomes settled, it is given more and more power in local matters, until at last it is formed into a province. There are at present two territorial divisions in the Dominion: (1) Yukon Territory, electing its own governing body, the "territorial council," and (2) the Northwest Territories, having as yet no local government. Territories may be given representation in Parliament, but not necessarily on a strict basis of population.

QUESTIONS.

1. How is the speaker of the House of Commons chosen? Mention some of his duties.

2. What is the "speech from the throne"?

3. How is a question brought up for discussion in the House of Commons? How is a "division" taken?

4. What are the stages in the passing of a bill?

5. Tell why the House of Commons is supreme.

6. What are the qualifications necessary for a senator? For a member of the House of Commons?

7. In what way is the number of members in the House of Commons determined? What are "constituencies"?

8. Write a composition on the thought contained in the following lines, taking them as applicable to Canada:

LIBERTY.

On foreign mountains may the Sun refine
The grape's soft juice, and mellow it to wine,
With citron groves adorn a distant soil,
And the fat olive swell with floods of oil:
We envy not the warmer clime, that lies
In ten degrees of more indulgent skies,
Nor at the coarseness of our heaven repine,
Though o'er our heads the frozen Pleiads shine:
'Tis liberty that crowns Britannia's isle
And makes her barren rocks and her bleak
mountains smile.

—*Addison.*

TOPIC V.

THE PREMIER AND THE CABINET.

1. Introduction.

Mention has been made many times already of the "government" and the "leader of the government." We shall now try to show what is meant by these terms. The word "government" is here used in a special sense, and denotes the body of men who really rule the nation, for, as we already know, the king or his representative, the governor-general, has no actual power. This body is also called the

"cabinet." Further, it is known as the "executive" or the "administration," because it executes or carries out the laws and conducts the business of the nation, while the duty of parliament is chiefly to legislate or make the laws.

At the head of the cabinet stands the person whom we have thus far called the leader of the government, but who is more usually known as the "prime minister," or "premier." The first form of the name, prime minister, is the one always employed in Great Britain, but not often used in Canada except in speaking of British affairs. The second form, premier, is the French word for "first," with the word "minister" omitted, and so means exactly the same as "prime minister," or "first minister." We almost invariably employ the form "premier" in speaking of Canadian affairs.

But why is the word "minister" used? "Minister" means a "servant." Formerly the prime minister was the servant of the king, and carried out his commands. Now he is really the servant of the nation, for it is

ultimately through its will that he becomes the head of the executive, or cabinet. The other members of the cabinet are likewise called "ministers."

2. Appointment of a Premier.

When a new premier is to be appointed, the governor-general sends for the person whom he thinks the majority of the House of Commons will support, and asks him if he will be his adviser and form a cabinet. If the person chosen feels that he can secure the support of the House of Commons, he sets about the selection of a certain number of men who may be willing to become his fellow ministers.

This is an easy matter, if it is pretty certain that the House of Commons will support the new premier. Otherwise it may be very difficult or impossible. In the latter event the new premier must go back to the governor-general and say that he cannot form a cabinet. He then usually gives the name of a person who he thinks will be able to get proper support in the House. The governor-general will at once send for this person, and ask him to be premier and form

his cabinet. When the latter has his cabinet chosen, he reports the names of the members to the governor-general for approval.

3. Members of the Cabinet in Parliament.

The premier, when he is first chosen, need not be a member of parliament, though he almost always is, but he must become a member as soon as possible. He usually prefers to belong to the House of Commons; but though he would be permitted to be a member of the Senate instead of the Commons, such an arrangement would not work well, for in that case he would not be able to take a direct part in what was being done in the House whose support is so necessary to him. The other ministers are chosen, sometimes from among men already in parliament, but nearly as often from among those outside. All ministers must, however, like the premier, become members of either the House of Commons or the Senate. But usually only a few of the ministers are members of the Senate.

It is important to note that, even if a minister is a member of the House of Commons before his appointment, he must be

re-elected to the House as a minister and member of the cabinet. The reason is that cabinet ministers get a special salary from the nation for their work, and no member of parliament is allowed to accept any salary from the nation beyond the payment he receives as an ordinary member, unless the people of his constituency express their willingness by re-electing him. The new minister is usually re-elected, because it is considered a great honour and advantage to a constituency to have as its representative a member of the cabinet.

4. Supreme Power of the Premier.

It will be seen from what has been said before, that so long as the House of Commons gives its support, the premier is the most powerful man in the nation. The other members of the cabinet are really appointed by him, and, moreover, if he resigns, they too must resign. The governor-general must, so far as Canadian affairs go, absolutely follow his advice.

The only real check on the premier's power is the House of Commons. But the members of the House are not always free to do as they like

and vote against the premier at any time they may so wish. Nearly all the members of the House belong to one of two political parties. Of one of the parties the premier is the leader, and he is almost sure of being supported by the members of his party on all necessary occasions. How this comes about will be explained under Topic VI. Therefore, with the steady support of his party behind him, the premier can carry on the work of government very much in the way he thinks fit, and is thus the nation's real ruler.

5. Unity in the Cabinet.

But on all important matters the premier consults with his fellow ministers. Regular meetings of the cabinet are held, and after discussion the members come to an agreement on each question. If, however, a member feels that he cannot accept the decision of the premier and the rest of the cabinet on a matter which is regarded as important, he is under obligation to resign. For it was long ago decided that our government cannot proceed in a satisfactory way, unless the ministers are all of the same opinion on essential points. Everything that is

said in the discussions at a meeting of the cabinet, is kept absolutely secret.

6. Order-in-Council.

When the cabinet has reached an agreement about some matter of business, as, for example, the appointment of an official, the acceptance of a tender from a contractor for some public building, or any one of the many other matters that come up in the work of government, the decision is written down in due form and submitted to the governor-general to be signed by him. It is then called an order-in-council and goes into effect.

NOTES.—"Governor-General-in-Council." This term is used in the case of all official acts of the cabinet. It denotes that the decision of the premier and his ministers has been communicated to the governor-general, and has been accepted by him.

"Privy Council." This historic body formerly gave advice to the king, when he asked for its opinion on any matter of state. It is still retained, but at the present day has no duties whatever. Each cabinet minister must, however, become a member of it by taking a prescribed oath. Though he may resign from the cabinet, he always remains a member of this ancient and shadowy council. Our privy council is called "the King's Privy Council for Canada," and must be distinguished from the British Privy Council.

The word "crown" is often used instead of the name of the king, and practically means the nation, as, for example, in the term "minister of the crown."

Questions.

1. What position does the premier occupy in the government of the country?

2. How is the premier chosen?

3. Why is it advisable that the premier should be a member of the House of Commons?

4. How is it that the premier is supreme in the cabinet and the House of Commons?

5. What is an "order-in-council"?

6. What is the meaning of "govenor-general-in-council" and "King's Privy Council for Canada"?

7. Write an account of a real or imaginary person who rose to the position of prime minister, as described in the following poem:

Dost thou look back on what hath been,
As some divinely gifted man,
Whose life in low estate began
And on a simple village green;

Who breaks his birth's invidious bar,
And grasps the skirts of happy chance,
And breasts the blows of circumstance,
And grapples with his evil star;

Who makes by force his merit known,
And lives to clutch the golden keys,
To mould a mighty state's decrees,
And shape the whisper of the throne;

And moving up from high to higher,
Becomes on Fortune's crowning slope
The pillar of a people's hope,
The centre of a world's desire;

Yet feels as in a pensive dream,
When all his active powers are still,
A distant dearness in the hill,
A secret sweetness in the stream;

The limit of his narrower fate,
While yet beside its vocal springs
He played at counsellors and kings,
With one that was his earliest mate;

Who ploughs with pain his native lea
And reaps the labour of his hands,
Or in the furrow musing stands:
"Does my old friend remember me?"

—*Tennyson, In Memoriam, LXIV.*

TOPIC VI.

Political Parties.

1. Public Questions.

There arise from time to time certain public questions about which men have strong opinions. For example, many are in favour of placing heavy duties on goods manufactured abroad, so as to prevent their importation into the country, thus

giving our manufacturers an opportunity of selling more of their goods in the Canadian market. Many other people advocate low duties or no duties at all on foreign goods, so that Canadians may be able to buy what they want as cheaply as possible without regard to the interests of the manufacturer and his workmen. Such is the tariff question which has played a great part in our political history. Other questions which have arisen are, that of separate schools in Manitoba and the new provinces, that of Senate reform, that of the national ownership of railways, and that of the prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors.

2. Origin of the Party System.

It is natural for all who take one side of a public question to form themselves into an association for the purpose of securing the adoption of laws in harmony with their particular views. The way to make sure that certain laws will be enacted, is to bring about the election to parliament of a majority of members in favour of them. Consequently, there is very good reason why persons who agree among

themselves on an important public question, should establish the kind of association which is called a political party.

But we must observe also that it is not often that a political party is successful, if the party is formed solely because of particular views on one question, no matter how important this may be. It is very difficult so to interest the great body of the citizens in a single question that they will unite on account of it alone aside from other public matters. But, in the course of long years of political discussion, the majority of the people have become separated into two great divisions. These divisions are known as the Conservative and Liberal parties.

The leaders of each, since they are anxious to secure a majority in the House and thus gain control of the government, try by every possible means to persuade voters of the merits of their own side. If they think that a certain public question will "catch" a large number of votes, they will be very ready to take it up, even though personally they might prefer to leave the matter alone. In this way, all important

questions are as a rule brought under the consideration of the people, and, in consequence, there is on ordinary occasions no need for forming a special political party. It is only when neither of the old parties will assist in the discussion of a public matter, that a new party may come into existence. There is, however, one great disadvantage in our having these permanent political divisions. Many persons become so much interested in the mere success of their own party, that they seem to care very little whether the public measures which it is advocating, are good or bad.

3. Political Platforms.

Some time before the elections a party usually draws up what is called its "platform," that is, a statement of what its views are in regard to the "issues," or important questions before the people. This statement represents the "policy" of the party. Great care is taken to show that this policy is in agreement with the "principles," or general ideas of government which the party is supposed always to follow and to hold sacred. We hear a great deal about these principles

during the "campaign," or period of public discussion that comes just before the elections.

A party usually has a "campaign cry," which is supposed to give the main issue in the most attractive way. These campaign cries sound very strange after all the excitement is over. Some of those which have been used are, "The old flag, the old policy and the old leader," "It is time for a change," "Five years more of the full dinner pail."

4. Government and Opposition.

The political party which has the majority in the House of Commons and of which the premier is the leader, is called the government party, and the other which opposes the government, is known as the "opposition." The head of the latter party has no special name, and is called simply the "leader of the opposition."

5. Nominating Conventions.

One of the first duties of a political party before an election is to endeavour to have suitable men "nominated" in every constituency, that is, to have them put forward publicly for election to the House. These men, when

selected, are called "candidates." The usual way in which a party chooses its candidate, is to ask its friends in each part of a constituency to meet and elect delegates, or representatives, to attend a general meeting, or "convention," to be held in some central place.

At the convention a number of names are proposed, and a vote is taken. After voting on all the names, the convention can generally narrow its choice down to two or three that obtain a high number of votes. The person who finally secures the highest vote, is chosen as the candidate of the party. Then the one who comes next to him in the number of votes received, generally moves that the choice of the convention "be made unanimous," and promises that he himself, just as the rest of the convention, will accept the party candidate and will work hard to secure his election to parliament.

Even though it may be well understood that the member at the time representing the constituency in parliament will again be a candidate at the elections, a convention of his party is usually called, and he is nominated or not, as the

convention thinks fit. Sometimes conventions, when summoned, decide not to put a candidate "in the field," if they see that their party would have little chance of winning.

6. The Campaign.

As soon as a candidate is chosen, he must set about preparing his "campaign." A number of the party workers help him, but he must do a great deal himself. He must try to meet as many persons as possible in the various parts of the constituency. For this purpose he goes about speaking at public meetings which are arranged for him, and is introduced by the local party men to individual voters.

He or his friends have to ask a great many directly for their votes or, as it is said, "canvass" them. It is an unfortunate thing that so many will not vote for a candidate, unless they are personally solicited. They seem to forget that voting is one of the highest duties which they have to perform as citizens, and that they should vote for the candidate they believe to be the best, whether they have ever been canvassed or not.

Sometimes also money is paid for votes. This "bribing" of electors is one of the greatest crimes that can be committed against the nation, and the person who receives such money, is quite as guilty as the person who pays it. If bribery were ever to become general, it would mean the end of liberty and good government, and thus what our ancestors toiled during a thousand years to gain would be thrown away. There may be bribery, too, in other ways than by money. For instance, some voters may be promised positions in the public service, grants from parliament, or special favours of various kinds. Such methods are all equally bad from a moral point of view and all equally injurious to the nation.

7. Doubtful and Safe Constituencies.

While the candidate is working in his own constituency, the leader and other prominent men in the party make a tour through the country. They address meetings in what are considered suitable places, especially in those constituencies which the party is afraid of losing, though it has won them at the preceding election, or which it does not now hold but

has hopes of winning. In fact, on these "doubtful" constituencies the fate of the party ordinarily depends.

On the other hand, there are some divisions that are almost sure to elect a Conservative as their member, while there are others that are quite as certain to elect a Liberal. Now it is just because of such circumstances that a government may have a great temptation to face. For, when a province is being divided into constituencies, a government, if it likes, can so make the division, that as many as possible of the new constituencies may be "safe" ones for its own party, and as many as possible "doubtful" for the opposition. For example, if a certain constituency is a doubtful one for the government, and there happens to be close by, a district that gives a good majority in its favour, all the government has to do in order to make the constituency probably a safe one, is to add this district. Or the same result may be gained by taking away a part of the constituency that gives a large opposition majority. This unfair way of dividing a province is called a "gerrymander," from the name of an American politician.

NOTES.—"Seat" is a term often used for constituency. "Elector" is another word for "voter." "The country" is a term frequently employed in politics to mean the electorate, or the whole body of voters of the nation.

QUESTIONS.

1. Mention some important public questions that have arisen from time to time in Canada.

2. How do political parties originate?

3. Explain the terms, "platform," "issue," "policy," "campaign."

4. What is the "opposition?"

5. What is a "nominating convention"?

6. Give an account of a political meeting which you have attended.

7. Who were the candidates in your constituency at the last Dominion election, and how did they conduct their campaigns?

8. Explain "canvass," "bribery," "gerrymander."

9. Learn by heart the following:

FREEDOM.

Her open eyes desire the truth.
The wisdom of a thousand years
Is in them. May perpetual youth
Keep dry their light from tears;

That her fair form may stand and shine,
Make bright our days and light our dreams,
Turning to scorn with lips divine
The falsehood of extremes!

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC VII.

How the Elections are Held.

1. Sessions of Parliament.

According to our constitution, the British North America Act, parliament must meet at least once a year. This meeting together for the purpose of making laws and transacting other public business, is called a "session" of parliament. Besides the one ordinary session in the year, a special session is sometimes held when there is need for it. The session may be long or short according to circumstances. The ordinary length is about four or five months.

Members of the Senate and the House of Commons are each paid a salary, called an "indemnity," of $2,500 for attendance during a session. If, however, a member is absent from the House a certain number of days, he loses a part of the indemnity. Moreover, if a session does not last longer than thirty days, he receives only a certain sum per day. The salary of the governor-general is $50,000 per year.

2. Prorogation.

At the close of the session parliament is "prorogued." This term means that parliament is dismissed for the time being, but is to be called to meet again at a certain date, when there will be a new session. At prorogation all bills that have not yet passed the Houses are dropped, and at the next session they must be presented again, as if they had never been before parliament.

On the occasion of prorogation the governor-general comes in state to the parliament buildings, as at the opening, and gives the royal assent to the bills that have been passed during the session. He also reads a short speech, reviewing the business of the session, and thanking the members for the work they have done.

3. Dissolution.

The longest period a parliament is allowed to last is five years; but very few ever continue so long. The ordinary duration is about four years. The government can have a parliament "dissolved," or ended, at any time, if the governor-general consents. and, of course, he

will hardly ever refuse except for the gravest reasons.

If a parliament is permitted to run its full course, there is difficulty in holding a satisfactory session near the end. The opposition can prevent legislation by simply talking away the time in committee of the whole, where any member may speak as often as he likes. This method of delaying business is known as "obstruction." When "obstructing," members only pretend to discuss the bill before them, their chief aim being to keep on talking as long as they can. Therefore, it is plain that, since parliament must come to an end by a certain day, the last session can be made nearly useless and the government be placed in an unpleasant position before the country.

Another reason why a parliament hardly ever lasts its full period, is that the government naturally likes to choose a time for "going to the country," when it feels that the chances of winning are most in its favour. If it should allow a parliament to last into the fifth year, it would have less choice of a suitable

moment for dissolution. This must be regarded as a rather unfair advantage which the government can take of the opposition. Besides these reasons, there is no doubt always a strong desire in the government party "to have it over" as soon as possible, when in any case election day must come before long.

4. Premature Dissolution.

There are, however, occasions when the length of a parliament may be much shortened. One occurs when some very important matter comes up for consideration, and the members of the government wish to know whether or not the people approve of their policy with respect to it. The governor-general is asked to dissolve parliament, and the "campaign" is fought chiefly on that one great question. If the government obtains a majority, it knows that the people wish it to carry out its policy. If it is defeated, the opposition comes into power as a new government.

Again, an occasion for dissolving parliament may arise when the government is defeated in the House of Commons on some

important question, such as a government measure. The government may ask for a dissolution in order to appeal to the country; or it may resign. If it resigns, the governor-general requests the leader of the opposition to form a new government. Should the new premier feel that he can get the support of the House, he may go on with the work of the session. But, if he is aware that he will not secure sufficient support, he asks that parliament be dissolved, and appeals to the people in the hope of obtaining a favourable majority in the new parliament.

5. Official Nomination of Candidates.

When for any reason it is decided to hold the parliamentary elections, writs, or orders, are sent out in the name of the king to special officers appointed in all the constituencies, and known as "returning officers." The writs state when the nomination of candidates is to take place. If only one candidate presents himself in a constituency, he is declared elected. Such an election is known as election by "acclamation." But if more than one candidate is

nominated, there must be a vote taken at a later time throughout the constituency at various places selected for the purpose.

At this regular or official nomination those who have been already chosen by the parties as candidates, are duly nominated by their supporters. Often no other candidates come forward, and the voters are forced to choose between these two. Sometimes, however, a third party, as the Labour party or the Socialist party, may put forth a candidate. Or a person may decide to be a candidate without the support of any party. Such a candidate is usually called an Independent Conservative or an Independent Liberal, as the case may be.

6. Nomination Papers.

The official nomination of candidates takes place in this way. At the time set by law, twelve o'clock noon, on the day appointed, the returning officer goes to a public hall, and there waits for nominations till two o'clock. A nomination must be in written form, and be signed by twenty-five electors. The person nominated must give his written consent, unless

he is absent from the province at the time. The sum of two hundred dollars must also be handed in to be kept as a deposit and returned, unless the candidate fails to obtain at least one-half of the number of votes polled in favour of the person elected.

7. How the Voting is Done.

After nomination day comes election day. Suitable places are chosen throughout the constituency as voting or "polling" places, and each is put under the charge of a deputy returning officer.

The vote is by ballot and is secret. A ballot is a sheet of paper having a detachable slip or counterfoil at the side, and provided with a stub by which it may be bound into a book containing twenty-five, fifty, or one hundred ballots, as is most convenient. On the front of the ballot appears the name of each candidate, with his residence and occupation. The names are in alphabetical order, numbered, and separated from one another by broad black lines. On the back, the stub and counterfoil have the same printed number, while the body of the ballot

has the returning officer's stamp, the place and date of the elections, and the name of the person who printed the ballots.

If you go to a polling place to record your vote, you notice, as you enter, besides the deputy returning officer and his assistant, known as the "poll clerk," a certain number of men, commonly called "scrutineers," who have been chosen by the political parties to watch over the interests of their candidates, and to see that persons who have no right to vote are not given a ballot. There is in the room a list of all those who have votes, and, if your name is on it, and the officials present are satisfied that you are the person you claim to be and not somebody else trying to vote under your name, you receive from the deputy returning officer a ballot, on the back of which he has put his initials. On the counter-foil also is written a number corresponding to the number placed opposite your name in the "poll book," in which a record is kept of all those who vote.

You are told to retire to some small room opening from the larger one, or to some space

screened off from it, and there you find a pencil with which you are to mark your ballot. Absolutely all you must do, is to make a cross X opposite the name of the man for whom you wish to vote. If you put any other mark on your ballot, you "spoil" it, so that it will not be counted. Then you should fold your ballot so as to show the initials of the deputy returning officer on the outside.

After that you go with it to the deputy returning officer. He looks at the number on the counterfoil and his initials, to make sure that it is the same ballot as the one which he gave you. Then he tears off and destroys the counterfoil, and puts your ballot in the ballot box that has been provided to contain all the ballots cast at this polling place. Meanwhile, the poll clerk records in the poll book the fact that you have voted.

In case the officials are not sure that you have a right to vote, they can ask that you be sworn before receiving a ballot. If you cannot swear that you are entitled to vote, you will not be given a ballot and will be asked to withdraw.

The voting lasts from 9 o'clock in the morning till 5 o'clock in the afternoon. When the poll is closed, the votes are counted as rapidly as possible, and the results are carried by eager messengers to the nearest telegraph or telephone office, so that it is known everywhere in a very short time who has been elected member for the constituency. There may, of course, be mistakes made in this first summing up, and the result is not known exactly, until the returning officer himself a few days later counts again all the votes in the constituency, and makes his official statement.

If the number of votes given for the candidates is very nearly even, there is usually held what is called a "recount" before a judge. The chief difficulty that usually presents itself, is whether certain ballots are to be counted or not. Some electors may have voted for more than the proper number of candidates, may have placed some marks beside the cross on their ballot, or may have made some other mistake. The judge decides on all these points, and his decision settles the question of the election,

unless there has been bribery or other wrong doing. In the latter event, the case comes up for trial in a court of law.

The elections are held throughout the Dominion on the same day, except in some large constituencies where the population is widely scattered and voters may have to go a long way to vote. Such constituencies are to be found in Northern Quebec and in British Columbia. There are also special arrangements regarding elections in the Yukon Territory.

8. By-Elections.

Elections for the choosing of a new parliament are called general elections. But often vacancies occur in the House of Commons at other times, when a member resigns or dies, or when a seat is declared vacant by a court of law for bribery or some other reason. In the case of a vacancy for whatever cause, the speaker of the House gives his "warrant," or permission, for holding a special election in the constituency concerned. Such an election is ordinarily called a "by-election." It is conducted in exactly the same

way as are the general elections, except in so far as it has to do with one constituency only and not with the entire country. If there are several vacancies at one time, the necessary by-elections are held as far as possible on the same day.

NOTES.—The "Closure." This is a means adopted in the British parliament to prevent "obstruction." A time-table is drawn up beforehand, showing how long discussion will be allowed in committee of the whole on each clause or division of a bill. When the time is up, all debate must cease, and the clause is straigthway voted on, and adopted or rejected. Then at once discussion on the next clause begins, and continues for the period allotted for the purpose. Thus it becomes manifestly impossible for members to "talk out" a bill.

The "Ballot." The abbreviations on the back are R.O. (Returning Officer), D.R.O. (Deputy Returning Officer), P.B. (Poll Book).

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of "prorogue" and "dissolve" as applied to parliament?

2. What causes may bring about the dissolution of parliament?

3. Tell how candidates are officially nominated for election.

4. Describe how an elector casts his vote.

5. What are the duties of a returning officer, a deputy returning officer, and a poll clerk?

6. Where was the polling place in your neighbourhood at the last Dominion election? In favour of what

political party did your municipality or polling division give a majority?

7. What political party is at present in power in the Dominion, and what is its majority in the House of Commons?

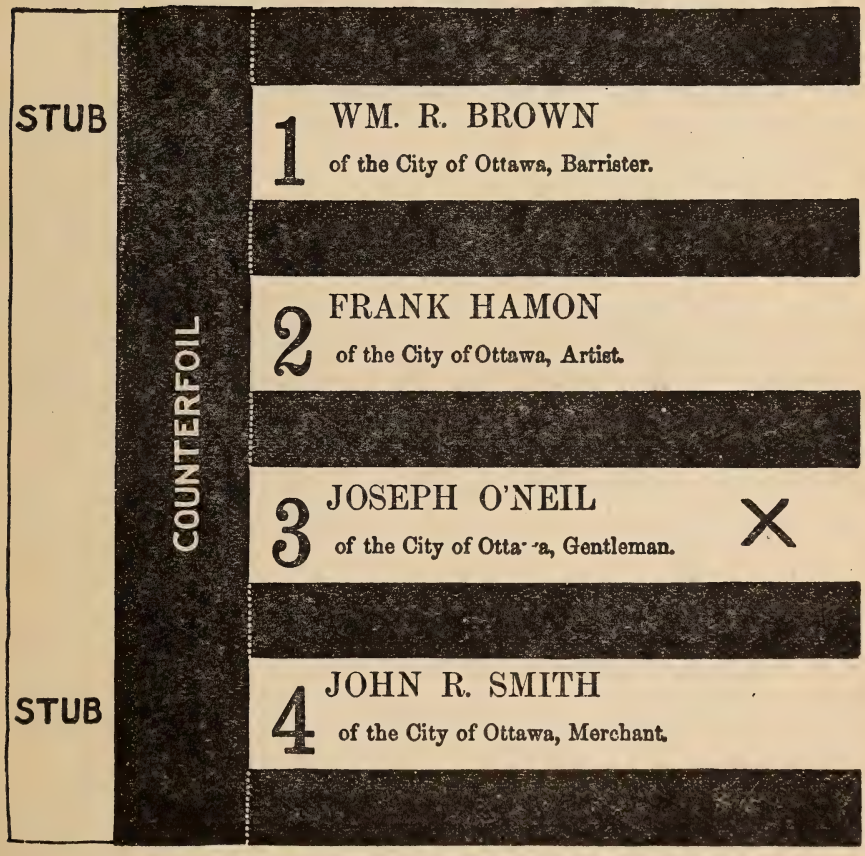
8. The following passage contains advice for leaders of political parties who desire the welfare of their country:

> Nor toil for title, place or touch
> Of pension, neither count on praise:
> It grows to guerdon after-days:
> Nor deal in watchwords overmuch:
>
> Not clinging to some ancient saw;
> Not mastered by some modern term;
> Not swift nor slow to change, but firm:
> And in its season bring the law.
>
> —*Tennyson.*

Read it over and try to understand it.

Form of Ballot Paper.

Front.



FORM OF BALLOT PAPER.

(Reduced to about 2/3 original size).

BACK.

No. 325

(Line of Perforations here.)

No. 325

P. B. No.....

(Line of Perforations here.)

D.-R.-O.

INITIALS.

R. O. STAMP

ELECTORAL DISTRICT OF CARLETON,

November 24, 1900.

JAMES BROWN, Printer,
Ottawa.

TOPIC VIII.

The Departments of Government.

1. Ministers and their Deputies.

Thus far we have been studying chiefly how the laws are made, and what share the executive, or cabinet, has in legislation. We shall now learn how the cabinet carries on the general business of the nation. All the immense amount of work that has to be done, is divided among a certain number of departments. At the head of each department is a cabinet minister. He is responsible for the kind of work that is done in his department, and is expected to answer questions about it when they are asked in parliament.

Under him is a deputy minister, who assists him, and has more direct charge of the details of the department and of the clerks and others employed. Though the cabinet minister must change, if the government is defeated and compelled to resign, the deputy minister is a permanent official. If it were otherwise, the public business might be very badly done,

when new men took hold of a department without knowledge of its special work. Cabinet ministers may come and go, but there is still a person left in charge who knows all about the business of his department.

2. List of Cabinet Ministers.

At present the cabinet ministers and their departments are as follows:

The Prime Minister or Premier, who is also head of the Department of External Affairs, having charge of correspondence with the rest of the Empire and with foreign nations.

The President of the Council, who presides at meetings of the cabinet.

The Minister of Trade and Commerce, the duties of whose department will be readily understood from the name. He has also charge of the census. He is, moreover, the minister who has to do with the granting of patents, the copyrighting of books, and the registering of trade marks.

The Minister of Justice, who has charge of legal matters. He sees that the laws are enforced, decides whether a man who has committed a crime shall be pardoned or not, and has the oversight of the penitentiaries of the Dominion.

The Minister of Marine and Fisheries, who has to deal with matters connected with navigation and fishing. For example, he looks after the harbours, the lighthouses, the inspection of ships. He is also head of the Department of the Naval Service having control of matters that concern the navy and the hydrographic service.

The Minister of Militia and Defence, whose duties are with regard to our armies, fortresses, schools of instruction and military college.

The Postmaster General, the minister in charge of all the post offices and the mails.

The Minister of Labour, whose duties concern the welfare of the working men. Thus he aids in the settlement of "strikes" in accordance with an act of parliament which provides for arbitration under certain conditions. The department of labour publishes a paper called the "Labour Gazette."

The Minister of Agriculture, who has charge not only of agricultural affairs, but of many things that have little to do with farming. He deals with matters which concern the health of the people, and the quarantining of ships or their

passengers, if any dangerous disease is found on board.

The Minister of Public Works who attends to the erection and repairing of all public buildings and other works (except railways and canals).

The Minister of Finance, who is the most important minister with the exception of the premier. He lays before parliament and the nation the policy of the government in regard to taxation. As the Dominion collects its taxes indirectly by means of customs and excise duties, and not directly, as our cities and towns must do, this policy comes to mean a very great deal in the buying and selling of manufactured goods. The matter will be more fully explained under Topic IX.

The Minister of Railways and Canals, who deals with affairs connected with the railways and canals of the country. The nation owns all the canals. Of the railways it possesses the Intercolonial and the Prince Edward Island Railway in the Maritime Provinces. It also owns the National Transcontinental Railway, and is acquiring the Canadian Northern Railway. There is a "board of railway commissioners"

appointed by the government to act as judges for the settlement of disputes with respect to railway rates, telegraph and telephone charges, and other matters connected with public services of this kind. The board has six members.

The Minister of the Interior, who has to do with the government of the Northwest Territories, the Indians, and many matters that concern the western provinces.

The Minister of Customs and Inland Revenue, who has charge of the collection of the customs and excise duties, and the inspection of weights and measures.

The Secretary of State, who is the minister that acts as the official correspondent in matters in which the whole government is concerned. For instance, he carries on the correspondence between the Dominion and the provinces. Besides such duties, he issues passports to Canadians who intend going abroad, puts the great seal of the Dominion on documents which require it, looks after the government printing, and buys and distributes the stationery needed in all the departments. He is also Minister of Mines, and as such deals with the examination

of mineral deposits and the exploration of little known parts of the country.

The Minister of Immigration and Colonization, who deals especially with the bringing of settlers to Canada to occupy the new lands.

The Minister of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment, whose department aims to help returned soldiers to take their place again in the work of ordinary life.

In addition to the cabinet ministers, there is a member of the government who is not a member of the cabinet. He is the Solicitor-General, whose duty it is to give legal advice to the government, and to act as counsel when the Dominion has a case in court.

3. Civil Service.

The great army of clerks and other officials, many of them men of highly trained skill, who are required in the various departments of the government, is called by the general name of the "civil service." The name was originally given to distinguish this class from the persons who are engaged in the military or the naval service

of the country. Those who wish to enter the civil service must pass an examination. The governor-general-in-council makes the appointments to the service.

Formerly appointments and promotions were often the direct result of the "influence" of political friends. But it was at last decided to change all this, and to have persons selected because of their ability and fitness. For this purpose the civil service has been placed under the control of a "civil service commission," to act independently of politics. The commission consists of three members.

Questions.

1. What are the duties of a deputy minister?
2. How many cabinet ministers are there?
3. Who is the Premier? Who is the Minister of Finance?
4. What is the Board of Railway Commissioners?
5. What are the duties of the Minister of Justice and the Secretary of State?
6. Describe the work of the Department of Labour?
7. What is the "civil service"?
8. Commit to memory:

Should banded unions persecute
  Opinion and induce a time
  When single thought is civil crime,
And individual freedom mute;

Though Power should make from land to land
  The name of Britain trebly great—
  Tho' every channel of the state
Should fill and choke with golden sand—

Yet waft me from the harbour-mouth,
  Wild wind! I seek a warmer sky,
  And I will see before I die
The palms and temples of the South.

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC IX.

Taxation.

1. The National Debt.

In order that government may go on, a great deal of money must, of course, be spent. Our nation, like nearly all others, is in debt to a large amount. Debt for a nation is not quite so troublesome a thing as debt for an ordinary person. Nations are expected to live forever or, at least, for a very long time. Consequently, when great public works are to be constructed,

it does not seem necessary or proper that, while these are to benefit future generations, the people of the present time should pay in full for them. Therefore, money is borrowed, and interest is paid on it. Moreover, the nation can borrow money at a low rate of interest, and thus the burden of the debt is, after all, not so great.

Still it is unwise even for a nation to assume a very heavy debt. For, in that case, those who lend money become afraid of not receiving the interest promptly or even of losing some of the principal, since a nation, like an individual, sometimes cannot or will not pay its debts. As a result, lenders may charge a high rate of interest or may not lend at all, even when the nation is in great need. Canada has never gone too deeply into debt, and so can borrow money at a low rate of interest, or, as people say, "the credit of the country is good." We have gone into debt chiefly to provide for the construction of public buildings, railways and canals, and to assume the indebtedness of the provinces at the time when they entered confederation.

2. Annual Expenditures.

Each year the interest on the public debt has to be paid. Next come the expenses of parliament and the salary of the governor-general. The Dominion must also pay the salaries of the lieutenant-governors of the provinces. All the expenses of the departments and the civil service have to be met. The salaries of the judges, the cost of building and managing public works of all kinds, of maintaining the mounted police in the Northwest Territories and of looking after the Indians, and countless other expenses, must all be paid.

3. Sources of Revenue.

Now, the question is how is all this money to be obtained? The answer is that it is paid in the form of taxes by the people. But in ordinary times the Dominion does not levy taxes on the people directly as a municipality does. It secures its revenue indirectly by means of customs and excise duties.

4. Customs Duties.

When anything is brought into the country, such as manufactured articles, like cotton or woollen goods, or natural products, like grain or

sugar, it may have a tax placed upon it of so much per cent. according to value, or so many cents per bushel or pound according to the quantity. Such taxes bear the name of customs duties. As goods usually are imported in large quantities by merchants, the duties are paid by them in the first place. But when they are bought by purchasers in the shops and elsewhere, they must be sold at a higher price in order to make up the amount of the duties that have been charged. Consequently, every person in the country pays more or less taxes to the Dominion government, although he may never realize that he is doing so.

Herein lies the objection to such a method of taxation, since one cannot readily discover how much he is actually paying. In fact, it would often seem as if a large part of the nation does not really know that government costs anything, or imagines that the money comes in some miraculous way and not out of the people's own pockets. As a result, public expenditures are not closely enough watched, and administrations are, in consequence, tempted to be wasteful. The nation also falls into the habit of expecting

parliament to authorize unprofitable undertakings, such, for example, as the construction of public works in places where they are not needed.

5. Protective Tariff.

The rate of duties placed upon imported goods, or the "tariff," as it is commonly called, may lend itself to another purpose besides the raising of revenue for the expenses of government. This we shall now explain. If a country has few manufactures, it must ordinarily have few people living in the cities, because there will be little work for them to do. Therefore, the farmers will find only a small population to buy their grain and other products, or, as it is said, the "home market" will be small. Hence it will be necessary to send a large amount of produce abroad to other countries in order to be able to dispose of it.

Now it is always felt that it would be well to have a large market at home. For, in that case, the manufacturer could sell his goods to the farmer, and the farmer sell his produce to the manufacturer and his workmen, and everybody find it a profitable arrangement.

But how can manufactures be built up, when costly buildings must first be erected and workmen trained, while foreign manufacturers who have been years in business are prepared to sell their goods at such low prices as to defy competition?

The easiest way out of the difficulty seems to be to levy high customs duties on foreign goods. As a result, these cannot any longer be sold cheaply in the country. Hence the home manufacturers will be able to sell their product at a remunerative price, and thus find themselves in a position to build and equip suitable factories and procure skilled workmen. Afterwards when they have had such "protection" against foreign goods, until their business has become prosperous, they will be able to meet all competition and need not complain, if the high duties are removed. This would seem to be an excellent arrangement, for, although the farmers and other purchasers will for a time have to pay more for what they buy, they will be assisting in the creation of a large home market for themselves.

The main difficulty is, that it is not easy for any one to say just how long the high duties

should be maintained. The manufacturers will naturally desire "protection," as long as it can be given, for, if it is removed, they will be compelled to lower the price of their goods. Yet those opposed to protection, called "free traders," would soon persuade the people to abolish the high duties, if foreign nations did not also have their own protective tariffs against us in order to keep out our goods. Thus there exists what is really a sort of war between nations, in which each tries to get the better of the other.

As a consequence, Canada seems to be forced in self-defence to keep up a protective tariff. In fact, there is only one great "free trade" country in the world, namely, Great Britain. The United States has a very high tariff. On the other hand, the Canadian tariff is rather a moderate one. Moreover, we have adopted, in favour of Great Britain and a number of the colonies, what is known as the "British preferential tariff," which permits their manufactures to enter our country at a lower rate than we grant to those of outside nations.

6. Excise Duties.

Besides the customs duties levied on goods brought into the country, there are "excise duties," which are collected on liquors and tobacco manufactured in Canada. This tax is a heavy one and yields a large revenue to the government.

7. Consolidated Fund.

All sums of money that are contributed for the purposes of government, whether they come from taxes or from some other source, are placed together to form what is known as the "consolidated fund." Then again, all the expenses of government are paid out of the same general fund. In this way it is very easy to discover to what the revenue and the expenditure have amounted during each year. An official, called the "auditor general," has the duty of investigating all payments, so as to make sure that no money has been expended for any purpose beyond what was authorized by parliament.

8. The Budget.

One of the great events of the annual session of parliament is the speech of the Minister of Finance in which he presents the "budget."

This means the statement of the probable expenses of government for the following year and of the amount and kind of taxation that will be necessary to meet these expenses. Therefore, it is in this speech that is explained what will be the rate of duties on imports, and whether the tariff will be "protective" in the case of certain kinds of goods, or whether it will be one "for revenue only." The budget speech is, or should be, a matter of great interest to farmers, manufacturers, merchants, and, in fact, to all classes of people, because customs duties affect everybody in the country in some way or other.

Questions.

1. Why should a nation not go deeply into debt?
2. How does the Dominion obtain its revenue?
3. Mention some of the annual items of expenditure.
4. What are "customs duties"?
5. What is a "protective tariff"?
6. What is the "budget"?

TOPIC X.

Money and the Banks.

1. Money and Barter.

We all know something about "money." When we buy anything, we pay money. When we sell anything, we receive money. Things that are sold and work that is done, are said to cost a certain sum in money. If there were no such thing as money, we should be forced to use what is called "barter." For example, if we wanted to buy a pair of boots, we should have to work a certain number of days for the man who sold them, or give him something that we had, such as wheat, flour or meat. Long ago before there was money, this is what was actually done. But nowadays all kinds of work to be performed and all articles to be sold, are said to cost a certain amount in dollars and cents. One can easily see that this is a much more convenient way of doing business than if we had to employ barter.

2. Currency.

The form of our money (or our "currency") is very familiar to us. It consists of copper, silver, gold and paper. The copper coin is the one cent

piece. The silver coins are the pieces worth 5, 10, 25, and 50 cents. The gold coins are of the value of $5 and $10. The paper money consists of "notes" (usually called "bills"), representing the value of $1, $2, $5, $50, $100, $500 and $1,000. These coins and notes are issued by the Dominion, and would be worth little or, in the case of the paper money, nothing at all, if the government were not always willing, when asked, to pay the given value in gold.

But just because it is well known that the government will pay in gold, there is considered to be little need of asking for payment. The promise to pay is regarded as of the same value as the gold itself. But, if at any time many persons should come to believe that the government either would not, or could not, pay in gold, our currency would at once lose much of its value. Therefore, the government takes care to issue currency only to such an amount that doubt can never arise as to its being able to "redeem" all in case of necessity.

3. Coinage.

An establishment where gold, silver and copper coins are made is called a "mint." Our

mint is situated in Ottawa. It is a branch of the royal mint in Great Britain.

The notes or bills are printed on specially prepared paper, and are signed by officers of the Dominion. Great care must be taken that no person shall be allowed to imitate, or "counterfeit," these notes, since, in that case, either the government or the persons who happened to accept the "counterfeits," would lose the amount of money supposed to be represented by them.

4. The Chartered Banks.

The regular banks of the country, called "chartered banks," perform many important services. Their business is carried on under the terms of a "banking act" which renders them, as far as can be done by legislation, a safe place in which to deposit money. Most of the provisions of the act are too difficult to explain here. But in a general way it may be said that the shareholders (that is, those who own and control the bank) are liable to lose, in case the bank becomes insolvent, not only the money that they have invested, but as much again, should it all be required to pay off the indebtedness. Thus the "double liability" of

the shareholders makes it almost impossible for the depositors to lose much in the event of the failure of a chartered bank.

5. Services Performed by the Banks.

The chief services performed by the banks may be described as follows:—

1. They issue currency called "banknotes" or "bankbills." None of these notes are below $5 in value. In most banks they are of such denominations as $5, $10, $20, $50, $100. If a bank fails, its notes do not lose value, for the banking act prescribes a way by which they are sure to be redeemed in full without the slightest loss or inconvenience to the public.

2. They form a safe place for the deposit of money. The double liability of the shareholders makes it possible to secure funds enough in even the most disastrous failures to pay back nearly in full the amount of the money deposited.

3. They furnish money at a reasonable rate of interest to merchants and others for the carrying on of those kinds of business in which large amounts must be paid out for purchases,

before much can be returned through the sale of the goods. An important example is to be found in the case of the money required to pay farmers for their wheat. Most of the wheat must be shipped to Great Britain; hence there must elapse considerable time before it is actually paid for by the purchasers across the ocean. With the aid of the banks, it becomes possible to make cash payments to the farmers from whom the grain is bought, and to the railway companies by whom it is transported.

4. All the large banks have many branches throughout the country. Thus there is in nearly every town and village an office of a strong and trustworthy institution, where money may be deposited or borrowed according to the needs of local business.

Questions.

1. Examine a one-dollar bill, noting the place, the date, the number, the "promise to pay," and the signatures. What scenes and persons are represented on the front and back of the bill?

2. Examine a copper or silver coin, noting the design on its two sides. Find what the Latin inscription means.

3. What is the name of the nearest branch of a chartered bank? Who are the chief officials? What is the rate of interest paid on deposits?

NEW BRUNSWICK EDITION.

PART II.—PROVINCIAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC XI.

The Provincial Government.

1. Introduction.

There are nine provinces in the Dominion of Canada, and although there is much similarity in their forms of government, there are likewise important differences. We shall find it well to study particularly the government of the province of New Brunswick, and refer to that of the others only when some interesting point is to be observed.

New Brunswick is one of the eastern or maritime provinces of Canada. It has important agricultural and lumbering industries. It is well adapted for fruit growing and for sheep raising. It has abundance of large game in its forests for both the home and the foreign sportsman. The St. John River flowing through the province from north to south, has no superior in America in its natural scenery. The harbour at its mouth is one of the best in eastern Canada, and

thousands of immigrants land here every year. St. John is the chief winter port of Canada for trans-atlantic steamers.

New Brunswick was formerly part of the old province of Nova Scotia. It was formed into a separate province in 1784, the next year after the landing of the United Empire Loyalists at St. John. The province derives its name from the Royal House of Brunswick.

2. The Lieutenant-Governor.

The provincial government is conducted according to the same general principles that we have already studied in the case of the Dominion. The officer who holds in the province the position similar to that which the governor-general holds in the Dominion, is known as the lieutenant-governor. He is appointed by the Dominion government, and his usual term of office is about five years. Stated briefly, his duties and powers in the affairs of the province correspond closely to those already described as belonging to the governor-general in the affairs of the nation. (See page 21.)

3. The Executive Council.

The leader of the government in the province is called the "premier." He is chosen by the lieutenant-governor in exactly the same way as the premier of Canada is chosen by the governor-general. (See page 48.) Likewise there are associated with the provincial premier a number of other ministers who assist him in the work of the government and form with him the "executive council," or cabinet of the province. What has been said under Topic V regarding the premier and cabinet of the Dominion is similarly applicable to provincial affairs. The term that corresponds to Governor-General-in-Council is Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. The following are the members of the executive council:—

The Premier, who may also have charge of one of the government departments.

The Attorney-General, who has the superintendence of matters connected with the administration of justice in the province. He also supervises the Acts or measures introduced into the legislature to be enacted into laws, and collects the "succession duties." As Attorney-

General he is the recognized leader of the "Bar" of the province, as the whole body of barristers, or lawyers is called.

The Provincial Secretary and Provincial Treasurer. Both of these offices are held by the same official.

The Provincial Secretary's department has charge of public printing, issuing of marriage licenses, recording land grants, recording births, marriages and deaths in the province, and printing the Royal Gazette, an official weekly publication in which all government and official notices are published.

The Provincial Treasurer's department is charged with receiving the revenues of the province, from whatever source derived, and with the payment of all expenditures of the government. All payments are made by cheques signed by the receiver-general or deputy receiver-general and countersigned by the auditor-general.

The Minister of Lands and Mines. His department has charge of all matters relating to crown lands, mines and fisheries of the province. Miners' permits and sportsmen's licenses are issued from this department.

The Minister of Public Works. This department exercises control over matters relating to the highways, bridges and public buildings owned by the province. Registration of all the automobiles used by people living in the province is made in his office.

The Minister of Agriculture. This department deals with all matters relating to agriculture and immigration.

Each of the government departments has a deputy head, or an official corresponding to a deputy.

The Deputy Attorney-General discharges such duties pertaining to the office of the Attorney-General as may be assigned to him by order of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

In addition to the foregoing officials there is usually an additional member of the executive without portfolio, that is, who is not at the head of any department of the government. He is generally appointed to the office of President of the Executive Council, but he receives no salary.

The official secretary of the executive council is called the Clerk of the Executive Council. He is not a member of the council.

The deputy ministers and secretaries of the departments, with the clerks and employees under them, compose the "civil service" of the province.

4. The Legislature.

The legislative or law making body of the province is called the "Legislature." It consists of the Lieutenant-Governor and a single House, the Legislative Assembly. Nothing that resembles the Dominion Senate exists in New Brunswick.

Aside from the differences that arise from there being no second chamber, business is conducted in the legislature in much the same way as in the Dominion parliament. There are a "speaker," a "clerk of the Assembly," and a "sergeant-at-arms." At the opening of each session of the legislature a "speech from the throne" outlining the programme of legislation for the session is read by the Lieutenant-Governor. Debate in the Assembly and in the committees is conducted under rules similar to those of the Dominion House of Commons.

The full term of the legislature is five years, but dissolution may come about sooner, and the

elections held exactly as in the case of the House of Commons at Ottawa.

Members of the House of Assembly, like those of the House of Commons, do not need to own property, but they must be British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years. The provincial House has a membership of 46. The sessional indemnity is $500. The salary of the Lieutenant-Governor is $9,000 per annum.

5. The Provincial Voters' List.

In order that a person may have the right to vote at a provincial election in New Brunswick, his name must be registered on the latest revised list of the voters of the constituency. To entitle him to registration he must be a British subject of the full age of twenty-one years. If he has been a resident of New Brunswick for at least six months previous to the 24th day of August in the year for which the voters' list is being made up he does not require any property qualification. If he has not been a resident of the province for six months before the date above named, he may still have his name placed upon the voters' list (1) if he is assessed in the parish,

city or town on real estate to the value of $100, or on personal property or real and personal property together to the value of $400, (2) on income to the amount of $400, or (3) if he is a priest or other Christian minister in charge of a congregation within an electoral district, or a licensed teacher or professor employed in teaching in any school or college within an electoral district. That an elector may be eligible to vote, not only must his name be on the voters' list but he must also be at the time of tendering his vote a resident of the electoral district in which he wishes to vote. Women may not vote at provincial elections.

The provincial voters' list is revised each year. On or before the first day of August in each year the "assessors" (referred to in Topic XII, page 125) of each city, town and parish must deliver to the "revisors" in each city, town or parish, a copy of the names of all male persons entered upon the assessment list for such city, town or parish, with such information as will enable the revisors to determine whose names should be placed upon the voters' list.

The revisors, three in number, are appointed annually for each city, town and parish in the province. In cities and towns two of them are appointed by the city or town council. In the parishes of the rural municipalities, two of the councillors representing the parish in the county council are revisors for the parish. In all cases a third revisor, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, acts as chairman of the revisors.

On or before the first day of September in each year the revisors of each city, town and parish meet and with the aid of the lists furnished them by the assessors, and of such other information as they may be able to obtain, prepare an alphabetical list of voters for each polling sub-division in the city, town and parish, by adding the names of persons entitled to be placed thereon to the voters' list of the preceding year, a certified copy of which has been supplied to them by the County Secretary. Copies of this list so revised by the revisors must be posted by them in three of the most public places in the polling sub-division of the parish for which the list is made, not later than the

tenth day of September in each year, together with a notice of the time and place of the next meeting of the revisors (which must be between the 20th and 25th days of October, inclusive). Any person wishing to have names added to or struck from the list must give notice thereof to one of the revisors not later than October the 5th. The grounds of addition or the reasons for striking off must also be given. The revisors then post, on or before October 10th in each year, in three of the most public places in the polling sub-division, a list of the names proposed to be added or struck off, together with a notice of the time and place of the next meeting of the revisors. At the time and place appointed the revisors meet and revise and correct the list as best they can from their own personal knowledge and from the evidence and statements made before them of any persons who may be present for that purpose. The revisors must send the completed voters' lists to the county secretary not later than the tenth day of November in each year, and the county secretary must receive them and notify the sheriff of the county that the lists are in his hands.

Every one whose name is on the voters' list is not allowed to vote. A judge of the Supreme Court may not vote. The sheriff of the county in which he holds office may not vote except in in case of a tie, when he gives the casting vote. Indians, prisoners, patients in a lunatic asylum and inmates of a municipal home have no vote.

6. Elections.

The elections for the provincial legislature are conducted in much the same way as those for the Dominion parliament. The voting is by secret ballot, and there are similar rules in force as to marking the ballots of voters. Any twenty electors may nominate a candidate for the legislature by signing a nomination for him, in proper form, and having it filed with the sheriff on or before the date fixed for receiving nominations. The nomination to be valid must be accompanied by a deposit of $100 to be placed in the hands of the sheriff. This deposit is returned to the candidate if he is elected, or if he receives at least half as many votes as any successful candidate. Otherwise the $100 deposit belongs to the government for the use of the province.

7. Provincial Revenues.

The current or "consolidated" revenues of the province of New Brunswick are derived from various sources, such as leases of crown lands, stumpage of lumber cut on crown lands, leases for fishing privileges within the province, game licenses, succession duties, taxes on incorporated companies, etc., together with the subsidies from the Dominion government.

To give the pupil an idea of the sources, and the amount from each source, of the ordinary revenues of the province, exclusive of the Dominion subsidies, for the fiscal year ended October 31st, 1917, it may be stated that the following sums were received from the sources named:—Territorial revenue, including stumpage, timber licenses, fishing and game licenses, leases of crown lands, royalties on minerals, etc., $544,-191.64; Provincial Secretary's office, including fees received for marriage licenses, taxes on moving picture shows, and on foreign companies doing business in the province, etc., $20,969.02; taxes on incorporated companies, such as fire and life insurance companies and banks, $64,-134.72; succession duties, $30,436.25; taxes on

railways, $57,197.00; sale of school books, $24,305.16; fines under the provincial Prohibition Act, $14,005.56; probate court fees, $19,430.36; provincial hospital, $42,624.01; Jordan Memorial Sanatorium, $10,108.88; motor vehicle licenses, $61,664.85; miscellaneous items, $45,774.64; total, $934,842.09.

8. The Subsidies.

In addition to the revenues just referred to there are the subsidies received by the province from the Dominion government. According to the terms of the British North America Act, the Dominion must pay to each province annually certain sums known as the "provincial subsidies." The original subsidies have been increased more than once since confederation. When the provinces became a part of the Dominion at the time of confederation they gave up to the Dominion the right of collecting customs and excise duties, and as a compensation for these the Dominion agreed to pay certain subsidies to the provinces. These original provinces had public debts which they had incurred in the construction of public works of various kinds. As we have already learned the Dominion

assumed this indebtedness. Provision was made however in the case of some of the provinces, including New Brunswick, that if their debts were less than certain specified sums, they should receive from the Dominion five per cent. per year on whatever the difference might be. This agreement did not prove satisfactory, and a demand for "better terms" was made. As a result it was finally decided to allow each province as additional compensation five per cent. on a certain sum. This forms one item of the subsidies.

Two other items of the subsidies consist of (*a*) 80 cents per head for each resident of the province according to the last decennial census, and (*b*) a grant to meet the expenses of government.

When New Brunswick entered the Confederation she was allowed to retain the right to collect export duties on lumber shipped from the province. This right was afterwards given up by the province on condition that the Dominion would pay the province a certain sum of money. Recently the Dominion has been giving the province a sum of money each year for the purpose of promoting Agricultural education. The total subsidies received from the Dominion for the fiscal year ended October 31st, 1917,

including the interest on the balance of debt assumed by the Dominion, are as follows:

80 cents per head on a population of 351,889	$281,511.20
Allowance for government	180,000.00
Allowance in lieu of export duty	150,000.00
Grant in assistance of Agriculture.	32,055.40
Interest on balance of debt ($529,299.39) assumed by the Dominion government and undrawn by the province @ 5%	26,464.96
Total from Dominion government.	670,031.56
Revenues of province from ordinary sources	934,842.09
Total revenue from both sources	$1,604,873.65

Questions.

1. Who appoints the Lieutenant-Governor? Who now holds this office?

2. What is meant by Executive Council? What by Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council?

3. How is the Premier of the province chosen? Who is the present Premier?

4. What is the Legislature? Of what is it composed?

5. Who may be elected members of the Legislative Assembly?

6. How are the candidates for the Legislative Assembly nominated?

7. What are some of the sources of revenue of the province?

8. What are the subsidies and what is the amount of them?

NEW BRUNSWICK EDITION.

TOPIC XII.

Municipal Government.

1. Introduction.

We have up to the present time been learning about the government of the nation, or of its larger subdivisions, the provinces. We shall now study the government of the smaller divisions as city, town and rural municipality. We have thus far been trying to understand our systems of national and provincial administration. We shall now take up the subject of "municipal government." The word "municipal" is derived from a Latin word which means a city or town having special rights of self-government.

2. Kinds of Municipalities.

Municipalities are formed in accordance with laws passed by the Provincial Legislature. The cities and some of the towns of the province are incorporated under special Acts of the Legislature, which were made to suit their special needs. Towns incorporated since 1896 were incorporated

under the authority of a general Act passed in that year and known as "The Towns Incorporation Act."

Each county in the province is a municipality under a law known as "The Municipalities Act." In some cases the city or town and the county within which it is situated form one municipality. Thus, while St. John City has a separate municipal government of its own, the county with the city forms one municipality known as "The municipality of the City and County of St. John." In the County of York, however, the City of Fredericton and the part of the county outside of Fredericton each has a separate and independent municipal government. Whether, therefore, you live in a city, town, or in the country, there is a municipality in which you are interested.

A municipal government, whether rural or urban, deals with matters which very closely concern the municipality. For instance, it sees that roads and streets are made, that sidewalks are laid, that parks and pleasure grounds are provided, that articles of food sold in the shops

are of proper quality ; they establish and manage public markets, provide for the poor, impose and collect taxes for municipal purposes, etc.

3. Municipal Councils.

In cities and towns the governing body consists of a council with a mayor at its head. The members of the council are called aldermen. The number of aldermen, and the qualification of both the mayor and aldermen vary in the different cities and towns of the province, but the minimum property qualification for mayor is that he shall have been assessed in the assessment next preceding his election, for real or personal property to the value of $1,000, and shall have paid before the time of his election all rates and taxes due from him within the city or town for which he is mayor. In all cases, however, the mayor and aldermen must be British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years, and they must be ratepayers in the city or town for which they are elected.

In rural municipalities the governing body is the county council, presided over by a "warden," elected by the council from their number at the

first meeting after the annual, or biennial election of county councillors. Each parish in a municipality elects two or more councillors, as fixed by law.

A county councillor must be a British subject of the full age of twenty-one years, and must live or have a place of business in the parish for which he is elected. He must have freehold real estate in the county worth $300 above encumbrances, or leasehold interest in real estate in the county at the time of his election to the value of $600 above encumbrances, or, during the year preceding his election, he must have owned and must have been assessed, within the county, on personal property worth $1,000.

Judges of the Supreme, County and Probate Courts, persons receiving charitable assistance from the muncipality, and persons licensed to sell spirituous liquors by retail, may not be elected as county councillors.

Neither mayor, warden, alderman or councillor is allowed to enter into contracts with the municipality which he represents.

4. Municipal Voters' List.

All males, widows and unmarried women, who are British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years, and who are residents and ratepayers in the parish, on income or personal properly to the amount of $100, or on income and personal property together to the amount of $100, or on real estate to any amount, may vote at elections in a rural municipality, provided their names are on the list of voters. This list is prepared each year by the parish clerk, from the assessment list furnished him by the assessors. In the case of Gloucester County the qualification on personal property and income is $50 instead of $100 as is the case in other counties.

In cities and towns, all males, widows and unmarried women who are British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years, may vote at civic elections, provided they have the necessary property or income qualification required for the particular city or town in which they wish to vote, and if their names are on the voters' list. The voters' list for the city or town is made each year by the city or town clerk, from the names

on the assessment list of ratepayers whose taxes were paid on or before a certain date fixed by law.

5. Municipal Elections.

Municipal elections in rural municipalities are usually held on the last Tuesday in October, or such other day in October as the council may from time to time appoint by by-law. In some counties, however, they are held at other times. They are conducted by secret ballot, much the same as in the Dominion and provincial elections. In some counties the elections are held annually, in others biennially.

Nomination must be made by the candidate or by some elector of the parish for which nomination is made, at or before six o'clock in the afternoon of the Monday of the week preceding the day of election. He must also file with the nomination paper, in the hands of the parish clerk, a declaration of the qualification of the candidate. The parish clerk must post the names of all candidates nominated, in three of the most public places in each polling district in the parish on or before the Thursday preceding the day of election. If only the required number

of candidates is nominated, no poll will be held; otherwise a meeting for election is held, and at the close of the poll, the candidate receiving the largest number of votes, is declared elected by the parish clerk. The poll opens at nine o'clock in the morning and closes at four in the afternoon.

Cities and towns, as well as rural municipalities, have a secret ballot. Their elections are held on dates fixed by their several Acts of Incorporation. The mayor, and in most cases the aldermen, or councillors, are elected by a general vote of the electors of the city or town. Generally the elections are held, and the mayor and aldermen or councillors, elected annually. In the City of Fredericton, the mayor is elected annually, and at the same time two aldermen are elected for two years.

St. John City has a Commission Government. Its Common Council is composed of a mayor and four commissioners. The elections are held biennially, in April. The mayor is elected for two and the commissioners for four years. A commissioner must not engage in any other business, trade, profession or calling. The mayor

and commissioners each receive a yearly salary of $3,000. The mayor or a commissioner may be recalled, or removed from office before the end of his term, by voters qualified and entitled to vote at civic elections.

6. Municipal Officers.

The county officials are the Treasurer, who receives and pays out the monies belonging to the municipality; the Secretary, who keeps the records and accounts; the Auditor, who examines all the receipts and vouchers for expenditures of the municipality. The offices of Treasurer and Secretary are often combined. There is also an officer for the county called the Clerk of the Peace, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, whose duty it is to advise and instruct magistrates and county officers as to their duties.

The county council also appoints such officers for the parish as parish clerk, overseers of the poor, collector of rates and taxes, fence viewers, assessors of rates, pound-keepers, constables, etc.

No person may be appointed to a county or parish office unless he is a British subject and a

ratepayer in the county or in the parish for which he is appointed.

In urban municipalities the officers are much the same as in rural municipalities except that instead of a parish clerk, they have a city or town clerk.

7. County Council Meetings.

The county councils generally meet on the third Tuesday in January and the first Tuesday in July, but in some counties the meetings are held on other dates. The council may by a by-law vary the above dates. They may also dispense with the semi-annual or midsummer meeting. A special meeting of the council shall be called by the warden, on the application of four councillors. In the absence of the warden from the province, or if there is no warden, the secretary-treasurer shall call a special meeting on the application of five councillors. A majority shall form a quorum for the transaction of business. The warden, or in his absence, a temporary chairman appointed by the council from their number, presides at all meetings of

the council. The warden or chairman may vote with the other members on all questions, and where there is an equality of votes on any question it shall be deemed to be negatived. The council meetings are held in the county court house.

The warden shall in the month of January or February in each year publish in a newspaper published in the county, or in pamphlet form or in both if so directed by the council, a full statement of the receipts and expenditures of the county during the past year. This statement must be signed by the warden and by the auditor.

The treasurer of each municipal, city or town council, must on or before the first day of February in each year, file in the office of the provincial secretary a statement of the assessed value of the real estate and personal property within such municipality, city or town, and also a statement of any loan made under any Act of the legislature, and chargeable upon the municipality, city or town.

8. City and Town Council Meetings.

In cities and towns the meetings of the council are held at such times as the council may determine. The mayor, or in his absence the deputy mayor presides. If there is no deputy mayor, the council appoints a temporary chairman, in the absence of the mayor. All questions are decided by a majority vote. The mayor or chairman usually votes only in case of a tie. In St. John city, however, the mayor has a vote as a member of the council, and another vote in case of a tie. Committees are appointed to have charge of various services, such as fire, water, streets, finances, public buildings, markets, etc. These committees act as executives in their particular departments. The council makes by-laws for its own government.

9. By-Laws.

Any legislation passed by a county, city or town council is called a by-law.

The subjects regarding which a municipal council has power to legislate are carefully

explained in the Municipalities Act and in the various Acts under which cities and towns are incorporated. As the list is a very long one it is not practicable to give it here. In general, everything that concerns the municipality, and is not otherwise provided for by the statutes of the province, is under the control of the municipality.

10. Municipal Taxation.

In order to meet the expenses of civil government, the council imposes a direct tax on property and income in the municipality. As a first step it is necessary to determine the value of every man's property and the amount of all incomes that are taxable. For this purpose there are officers called "assessors" appointed for each parish, and for each city and town, who make an estimate in every case and record it in a document called the "assessment roll." All property is supposed to be assessed at its actual value, and incomes at their actual amounts. As however, each parish, city and town has its own board of assessors, the standard of valuation varies accordingly. In rural municipalities one-sixth of the whole tax to be levied in a parish is assessed at an equal rate as a poll-tax on all

males of twenty-one years and upward. The balance required is levied at an equal rate on the assessable property and income of the parish.

In cities and towns the poll-tax is usually $2.00, but in some cases it is more. Any balance to be raised by taxation is levied at an equal rate on the assessed property and income.

Since the amount of taxes which a person will have to pay depends upon the assessed value of his property or the assessed amount of his income or both, it is important that the work of assessment shall be fairly and accurately done. Each person liable to be assessed on property or income is required by law to furnish the assessors with a statement of the value of his property or income. Generally, in the cases of cities and towns, sworn statements are required. Ratepayers are not, however, compelled to make such statements, and when they do make them the assessors are not bound to be guided by them.

The notice given by the council to the assessors advising them of the amount of taxes they are authorized to assess is called a "warrant of assessment." After the assessors receive the

warrant of assessment from the municipal, city or town council, they shall post notices in three of the most public places in the parish, calling upon persons liable to be rated or taxed to bring to the assessors within thirty days a statement of the real and personal property and income they may have.

After the assessment list is made up it is posted in three of the most public places in the city, town or parish, so that if any person thinks he is taxed too much he may appeal to the assessors to reduce his assessment. Such an appeal must be made within twenty days from the date of the posting of the lists, when the assessors may correct such assessment if they think it advisable.

In rural municipalities the municipality collects no taxes for schools except the county fund which is referred to in Topic XIV., 4, (2). Other school taxes are collected by the local school authorities.

In cities and towns the taxes for schools, streets and other civic purposes are brought together and collected at the same time by the city or town collector.

11. Exemption from Taxation.

By the general law of taxation, except in cities and towns having special Acts of Incorporation, there are certain kinds of property and certain kinds of income exempt from taxation. The list is briefly as follows:—(1) property owned by the Crown, (2) property belonging to the municipality in which the assessment is made, (3) property belonging to school districts, (4) cemeteries, (5) the property of agricultural societies, (6) the property of any literary or charitable society, (7) household furniture in use, (8) any sum of money received as a pension, (9) mechanics' tools belonging to a mechanic and necessary for carrying on his business, to the amount of two hundred dollars, fishermen's boats and nets to a like amount, and all implements of farm labour belonging to a farmer, (10) property to the amount of $500 of a wife deserted by her husband and compelled to support herself. When a widow owns property the value of which is under $1,500, and supports minor children of her own or of her deceased husband, she shall be exempt to the amount of $200 on the property in the parish where she resides, and also to the further extent

of $200 for each minor child wholly supported by her. (11) income to the extent of $200, (12) property specially exempted by an Act of Assembly.

Certain cities and towns under their special Acts of incorporation have special exemptions with regard to property and income.

12. Borrowing.

Sometimes in order to carry out some expensive public undertaking, such as paving streets, the construction of a system of waterworks, the installation of a sewerage system or the erection of public buildings, a county, city or town council may think it advisable to borrow money instead of defraying the total expense from the year's taxes. In such cases authority must be obtained from the legislature, after the necessary permission to make the loan has been given by the local council. If any person thinks the authority should not be given by the legislature he may appear before the municipalities committee of the legislature when the House is in session and oppose the passage of the bill.

13. Statute Labour and Road Tax.

The highway roads of the province are maintained partly from taxes levied by the municipality and partly from grants made by the provincial government. The municipal taxes consist of a poll-tax of $1.50 on every male who is twenty-one and not over sixty years of age, and resident in the parish for which the assessment is made, together with a tax of not less than 20 cents on every $100 of assessable property and income in the parish. This rate may be increased by any municipality, either for that municipality, or for any parish in it. Residents in the parish may if they so desire perform labour upon the highways instead of paying cash. The property of a widow or of an unmarried woman, assessed in her own name, shall be exempt from road tax on $500 of her assessment.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by "municipal government?" How many kinds of municipalities have we been studying about? In which kind do you live?

2. What is the governing body in a county called? What in a city or town?

3. Who are your representatives in the municipal council? Who is your mayor or warden?

4. When and how often are your municipal elections held? How are your councillors or aldermen nominated? Who may vote for them?

5. When are your council meetings held? Where?

6. Who are your assessors? Your revisors? Who is the chairman of each body?

7. What property in your district is exempt from taxation? Why?

8. How are the highways maintained?

NEW BRUNSWICK EDITION.

TOPIC XIII.

The Courts of Law.

1. Introduction.

We have been studying thus far how the laws are made. We wish now to learn how they are administered. The administration of the laws is the duty of the "judicial" power. We have already learned what the legislative powers are and how they belong to parliament and to the legislature. On the other hand the judicial power belongs not to parliament or to the legislature, but to certain special bodies called "courts of law." A court consists of a judge with or without a jury. A jury is a group of men of different numbers for different courts, chosen to give a decision on the facts submitted to the court, and are selected from the county in which the sittings of the court are held. The highest courts generally have no jury.

2. The English Common Law and the Statute Law.

It is necessary to have laws for the many and complex relations that unite men in our modern

civilization, such as their business, and their family and social relations. If a man lends money, the law must state how he shall set about collecting it, should the debtor not be willing to pay promptly; if he desires to make a will the law must tell in what manner such an act can be properly performed, or if he dies intestate it provides a way for disposing of his property; and if one man wrongs another the law must declare what is his remedy and how it may be enforced.

Our system of law was not made in a day, but has grown up gradually through the long course of centuries, according as various customs and precedents became accepted as fair and just. Judges, in dealing with particular cases that came before them, followed certain general principles of justice, and as a result of their decisions, there has arisen a great body of law which applies to innumerable cases. This law which we have inherited from England, we call the "English Common Law." The English common law is at the foundation of our legal system throughout the Dominion (except in the province of Quebec). In order to change the

common law or make other laws to suit our own time and country, parliament and the legislature are, as we have seen, constantly passing new acts or statutes, and these form what is know as the "statute law."

3. Criminal and Civil Law.

There is an important distinction between certain kinds of law, which among others, the Dominion parliament may make and those which the provincial legislature has power to enact. Thus, in addition to laws governing the navy, postal service, commerce, etc., parliament alone may make laws relating to crime and criminals. These are included under the term "criminal law," which has to do with such offences as murder, forgery, theft, etc. That which affects the property and the civil rights of citizens and their relations to each other is referred to as the "civil law." The right of enactment of certain classes of civil law is with the federal parliament, and others with the provincial legislatures.

4. New Brunswick Law Courts.

The courts of law in New Brunswick may be briefly described as follows, beginning with the lowest, or inferior courts :—

MAGISTRATES' COURTS.—Justices of the Peace, Police and Stipendiary Magistrates are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council primarily for dealing with criminal and *quasi* criminal matters and for the keeping of peace and order. The special jurisdiction of each is laid down in different Acts of the legislature and in the criminal code. Generally their duty is to deal with matters of lesser importance and to hold preliminary examinations in connection with more serious offences. The civil jurisdiction of each is given to it by the local legislature.

PARISH COURT COMMISSIONER.—This official is also appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. His civil jurisdiction is the same and his criminal jurisdiction is similar to that of Stipendiary and Police Magistrates.

PROBATE COURT.—This court deals with the administration of the estates of deceased persons. There is one probate court for each county, which has a judge and a registrar, both of whom are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

The higher courts for the trial of causes are the County Court and the Supreme Court.

These are courts of record. The judges of these courts are appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, and their salaries are paid by the Dominion Government. All the other officials of these courts are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, and their salaries are paid by the provincial government.

County Court.—There is a county court for each county, but in most cases one judge holds court in two or more counties. For example, the judge of the York County Court is also judge of the Queens and Sunbury County Courts. There are six county court judges for the province.

This court has jurisdiction in actions on contract and for debt where the amount claimed does not exceed $400, and for tort, or wrongful acts, where the damages claimed do not exceed $200. Criminal cases, except such as are punishable by capital punishment, may be tried by this court. The sittings of the court are held at regular dates fixed by law. Certain appeals from the decisions of the lower or inferior courts are heard before this court.

THE SUPREME COURT.—The Supreme Court, which is the highest court in the province, is composed of seven judges, who are appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, and their salaries are paid by the Dominion government.

This court consists of three divisions, (1) The Appeal Division, or the Court of Appeal; (2) The Chancery Division; and (3) the King's Bench Division.

The Appeal Court consists of the Chief Justice, known officially as the Chief Justice of New Brunswick, and two other supreme court judges.

The Chancery Division also consists of three judges, who are the same as those of the Appeal Court.

The King's Bench Division consists of a Chief Justice and three other supreme court judges.

The Chancery Division has jurisdiction, among other things, over matters relating to the administration of the estates of deceased persons, foreclosure of mortgages, adoption of infants and the care of infants' estates, lunacy and the care of the estates of lunatics, and cases where the title of land is brought in question.

The King's Bench Division has jurisdiction over matters relating to crime, and civil cases not included in the Chancery Division of the Court. Crimes which are punishable by death can be dealt with only by this court.

The Appeal Court, as its name implies, acts as a court of appeal from the decisions of the Chancery and the King's Bench Divisions of this court, as well as from the county and inferior courts. It also exercises jurisdiction in other matters.

The Appeal Court shall hold five sessions each year at Fredericton, beginning on the second Tuesday in the months of February, April, June, September and November.

Circuit courts, as they are called in the King's Bench Division, presided over by one judge, are usually held twice in each year in each county, at times fixed by law. In some counties the Circuits are held more than twice a year.

Stated sittings of the Chancery Division, presided over by one judge, are held on dates fixed by law, at Fredericton, St. John and Dorchester.

The Chief Justice of New Brunswick, or the Chief Justice of the Appeal Court, takes rank

and precedence over all the judges of the courts of New Brunswick, the Chief Justice of the King's Bench ranks next, and the other judges of the supreme court take rank and precedence according to their seniority of appointment to their offices.

A very important officer of this court is the Registrar, who attends all the sessions of the appeal court, keeps the records and minutes thereof, signs and seals all papers (processes) of the court, draws all orders, etc., and taxes or assesses bills of cost. In certain matters the Registrar has the same judicial powers as a judge of the supreme court. Other officials of this court are the Deputy Registrar, Assistant Registrar, Reporter and Messenger.

5. Court of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes.

The judge of this court is appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, and his salary is paid by the Dominion Government. Usually the appointment is given to one of the supreme court judges. Applications for divorces are heard by this court.

6. The Supreme Court of Canada.

Above the courts of the province comes the Supreme Court of Canada. This court consists

of a Chief Justice and five other judges. Within certain restrictions appeals may be taken to it from the higher courts of the provinces. It has, moreover, the duty of interpreting our Constitution whenever difficulties arise. The Dominion government may refer any question of the kind to this court in order to secure an opinion upon it.

7. The Privy Council.

Finally, above all the courts of the colonies and dependencies of the Empire, stands a court in England called the "Privy Council." As may be inferred from the name, the judges of this court are members of His Majesty's Privy Council in Great Britain (not the Privy Council in Canada described under Topic V). When an appeal is made to the Privy Council it is by them referred to the Law Lords of the Council, forming what is known as "The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council." Such an appeal is allowed only when the case involves some very important point of law or the understanding of some provision of the Constitution. (Note :—The highest court of appeal for the British Isles is the House of Lords).

8. A Civil Suit.

Now the constitution of the various courts of law, and the powers that belong to them, form a somewhat difficult subject. So it will be better at first to follow the proceedings in two supposed cases, and learn in this incidental way what we can about the courts.

Let us first take a civil suit. We shall suppose that we wish to recover a certain amount of money that Mr. B. owes us. We are "plaintiffs" because we enter the suit. Mr. B. is "defendant" because he is defending his case. We make a brief statement of our claim in a writ of summons and this is "served" on the defendant, who, if he wishes to defend, has to put in an "appearance" and also a "defence," that is he must appear and give a reason why he ought not to pay. If the defendant were not to put in an appearance and defence, judgment would go "by default," and we could then proceed to collect our account by having a "writ of execution" issued under which the goods of the defendant would be seized and sold.

If the "defence" has been properly entered the suit will come up for trial at the sitting of

the court, if it be the county or supreme court, or at the time appointed for the hearing, if in one of the inferior courts. A person may present his own case in any of the inferior courts, but in a county or supreme court a lawyer must be engaged for the purpose. It is nearly always better to engage a lawyer, as it is his business to know the law, and no one not trained as he, can possibly bring out the important points and avoid making disastrous mistakes. A lawyer is usually consulted before any suit is brought at all, and allowed time to study the case fully. Therefore we shall suppose we have engaged Mr. X. The defendant has engaged Mr. Y.

When the day of trial comes, our case may not be the first one called. Perhaps the judge may not reach it till the next day. But at last it is called. Our lawyer, or "counsel," opens the case by stating what our claim is. We are asked to take our place as witnesses and give evidence. We are sworn "to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth." Then by questions our counsel leads us to tell all we know about the circumstances and the nature of the claim.

After he is done, the defendant's counsel "cross-questions" us, that is, asks us further questions, intending to bring out any point that is favourable to the defendant's side.

If there are other persons besides ourselves who know anything about the matter, they have been ordered, by what is known as a "writ of subpœna," or simply subpœna, to attend court, and are now sworn, questioned and cross-questioned. When our witnesses have all been heard, the counsel for the defendant briefly outlines his defence, then the defendant and his witnesses are sworn and give their evidence in the same way as described. The lawyers then sum up the evidence as a whole, each emphasizing that which in his opinion favours his side.

With this the case is concluded, and the judge gives his decision at once, or he "reserves" the matter for fuller study, and the decision is given later. If a jury has been called the decision is not given by the judge, but he addresses the jury reviewing the evidence, and the jury decides the facts on the evidence submitted. The side that loses usually pays the cost of the trial, although this is not so invariably. If the loser

is not satisfied, he may "appeal" to a higher court. Appeals, however, are expensive, and are not usually taken unless there is good reason to hope that the decision of the higher court will be favourable.

9. A Criminal Case.

Let us now follow the course of a criminal case in the courts. We shall suppose a man has maliciously burned his neighbour's house. The person suspected of the crime is arrested on a warrant issued by a magistrate or justice of the peace, and brought before a local magistrate for a "preliminary examination." In this examination the magistrate goes only so far as is necessary to enable him to decide whether or not a sufficient case has been made out against the prisoner to send him up for trial. If the magistrate decides that the evidence against him is sufficient, the prisoner is committed to jail to stand his trial at the next session of the county or supreme court, whichever session is held first.

Or suppose a murder has been committed. An officer, called the "coroner" looks into the matter and decides that it is necessary to hold an "inquest" or inquiry. He then summons a

jury and has witnesses called, sworn and questioned. After this the jury gives its "verdict" or opinion as to how the murdered man met his death. If the jury is reasonably certain who the guilty party is, it charges him with the crime. The preliminary procedure before the magistrate is the same as in the former case. If the prisoner in this case is committed by the magistrate he would have to be tried in the supreme court, as murder is a capital offence.

The prisoner being sent up for trial, before his case is brought before the court it is submitted to the "grand jury," who go over the evidence again and decide whether or not there is sufficient proof of his guilt to warrant his being put upon his trial. If they so decide, he is then tried by the court.

In the discretion of the judge, the accused person may be let out on "bail" between the time of his preliminary examination and his trial. A prisoner is said to be out on "bail" when some persons have promised to be responsible for his presence in court at the proper time or pay a sum of money as a fine.

At the trial a crown prosecutor called the Attorney-General, or some lawyer authorized by the Attorney-General, conducts the case. It is the duty of this officer to prepare the charge against the prisoner, which is laid before the grand jury at the session of the court. If in the opinion of the grand jury the evidence is not sufficient to cause the prisoner to be put upon his trial, he is set at liberty. But if it concludes that the evidence is sufficient, it is said to bring in a "true bill," and the accused must go for trial before a "petit jury" (little jury). If the jury disagree, the case being one requiring a unanimous verdict (see juries, page 149) it is dismissed and the trial may begin again before a new jury.

When the prisoner is brought into court the charge against him is read, and he is asked to say whether or not he is guilty of the crime. Usually he will say he is "not guilty." Then the members of the petit jury are chosen from lists furnished by the sheriff. Both the prosecuting counsel and the counsel for the prisoner have the right to "challenge" or object to a certain number of jurors "peremptorily," or

without giving any cause therefor. They may object to any number for cause, such as bias from friendship or enmity towards the prisoner.

After the jury has been "impanelled," or chosen, the trial begins. The proceedings resemble in a general way those already described in civil suits. At the close of the addresses of counsel for each side, the judge sums up the case for the jury, carefully stating the law and analysing the evidence.

In a case of murder it may be that the jury will have to decide whether or not the accused is actually the guilty one, and if he is, whether he committed the murder wilfully, or did it while trying to defend himself against attack from the murdered man.

The jurors then retire and discuss the case among themselves. When they come to a decision they all return to the court room and their leader, called a "foreman," announces whether they have found the prisoner "guilty" or "not guilty." The judge, in accordance with the verdict, either sentences the prisoner or allows him to go.

In case there is an important point of law involved, the judge may reserve the same for the consideration of the supreme court. Until such appeal is decided the sentence may be suspended or need not be passed at all.

Reserving a point of law does not, however, of itself suspend a sentence passed on one found guilty. If the court of appeal decides that justice has not been done the prisoner, a new trial may be ordered.

10. Juries.

It is a well recognized principle of English law that a person charged with an offence or crime has the right, if he demands it, to have his case heard and judged by a jury of his "peers" (equals).

In all civil cases the petit jury shall consist of seven persons in the supreme, and five persons in the county court. If they cannot agree upon a verdict within two hours after the case has been given to them by the judge, five of their number in the supreme, and four in the county court, may return a verdict.

In all criminal cases the petit jury consists of twelve persons. They must be unanimous to find a verdict.

In civil cases, either the prosecution or the defence may "challenge" or object to three jurors without giving any reason therefor; either party may object to any number for cause, as for bias, etc. In the trial of criminal causes, from four to twenty jurors, varying with the gravity of the crime, may be challenged without cause, and any number for cause.

A coroner's jury consists of seven petit jurors. They must be unanimous to render a verdict.

A grand jury consists of twelve jurors. A majority of them may give a verdict.

A grand or a petit juror must be a male British subject between the ages of 20 and 60 years, and shall be possessed in the county in which he resides, of real or personal property or both of the value of $400.

In the inferior courts a jury consists of three persons. They must be unanimous to give a verdict. In these courts a jury is never called in criminal cases.

11. Pardons.

The power to pardon a person convicted of a crime rests with the Governor-General of Canada, and is exercised by him on the recommendation of the Minister of Justice for the Dominion. If there is good reason for showing mercy in a special case, the Minister recommends to the Governor-General that the prisoner receive a full pardon, or that he be pardoned after a certain time, or that the sentence be commuted.

12. Speedy Trial.

An accused person committed for trial by a magistrate may, in the case of lesser crimes, "elect" (that is, choose) to be tried at once before a county court judge without a jury. In this way the matter can be disposed of very quickly.

NOTES.—The "Sheriff" is the chief executive officer of the law in a county, who sees that the orders, sentences and judgments of the court are executed, or carried out. He also summons the juries for the county and supreme courts, and has charge of the county jail. A "constable" is an inferior officer who makes arrests, serves summonses, or subpœnas, and other papers at the order of a magistrate, sheriff, or court of law. A "summons," or "subpœna," is a written command issued out of a court to a defendant, or to a witness to appear before that court. A "warrant" is a document giving authority to a person to do a certain thing. A common use of the warrant is to give authority to a constable to arrest a person accused of a crime.

The "Exchequer Court of Canada." This is a court of the Dominion consisting of one judge who resides at Ottawa. It has jurisdiction in all claims against the Crown as well as in cases relating to copyright and trade mark. The presiding judge visits the different parts of the Dominion from time to time to try cases.

The "Admiralty Court" is a branch of the Exchequer Court of Canada, and has jurisdiction to try cases relating to shipping.

Questions.

1. Name the various law courts of New Brunswick.

2. What causes may be heard before a probate court?

3. How are county court judges appointed? Who is the county court judge for your county?

4. What is the supreme court of the province? How many judges are there for this court? By whom are they appointed?

5. What is meant by the appeal court? What by the circuit courts?

6. Who keeps the records of the court of appeal?

7. What is meant by civil law? What by criminal law?

8. What is the highest court in Canada?

9. What is a "writ of execution?" A subpœna?

10. What is meant by "plaintiff?" What by "defendant?"

NEW BRUNSWICK EDITION.

TOPIC XIV.

EDUCATION.

1. School Districts.

All pupils who read this book will no doubt like to learn something about the schools and colleges of the province. Whether you live in a city, town or in the country, your school is under the management and control of a Board of School Trustees.

A city or town usually forms one school district under the control of one school board. A rural school district may be established by the Board of Education when the area included is at least $3\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, or with a smaller area if there are 50 resident children in the proposed district between the ages of 6 and 16 years inclusive.

Schools are known as common and high, the latter including all the grammar, and most of the superior schools of the province. Those having two or more departments, each with its own

teacher, and under the same board of trustees, are called graded schools. A school of one department employing but one teacher for all grades is called an ungraded school.

2. The Board of Education.

The Board of Education, with the Chief Superintendent of Education as its secretary, is in supreme control of the public schools of the province. The Board is composed of the Lieutenant-Governor, the members of the executive council, the Chancellor of the University of New Brunswick, and the Chief Superintendent of Education. Three members of the executive with the chairman (who must be the Lieutenant-Governor or in his absence the Premier) with the Chief Superintendent of Education, constitute a quorum.

The Board provides for the establishment of a Normal and Model School for the training of teachers, appoints school Inspectors, and determines the district of each, divides the province into school districts, prescribes text-books and apparatus for the use of schools, and generally provides for an efficient system of education.

3. The Inspector.

Besides the teachers and trustees of your district there is another officer known as the Inspector of schools. He is appointed by the Board of Education to have oversight of the schools of a certain division of the province, which forms his inspectorial district. He is required to visit the ungraded schools in his district once in each school term or twice yearly, but graded schools are visited by him but once a year. He examines the work of the schools, sees whether or not the school buildings and premises are kept in proper repair and condition, and whether the schools are being conducted according to the law and regulations of the Board of Education. He reports on the first day of each month to the Chief Superintendent of Education, on the schools visited by him the preceding month.

4. Support of Schools.

Public schools in New Brunswick, under the control of the Board of Education of the province, are supported from three sources, viz.—(1) provincial grants, (2) county fund, (3) district assessment.

(1) PROVINCIAL GRANTS.—Teachers receive annual grants from the provincial treasury, according to their class of license, sex, length of service, and the kind of school taught, as follows: males, third class, $8 to $100; second class, $108 to $140; first class, $135 to $175. Females, third class, $63 to $80; second class, $81 to $105; first class, $100 to $130. To grammar school teachers, male and female, the maximum grant is $400, but the teacher can receive no larger provincial grant than the amount received by him from the school trustees of the district. Superior school teachers, either sex, receive from $250 to $275 annually, provided the school trustees pay not less. Manual training and household science teachers receive government grants of from $50 to $200 annually.

In addition to grants to teachers, the government pays special grants to consolidated schools for three years after their establishment, the amount in each case being determined by the number of districts which enter into the consolidation and the average number of pupils attending the school. It also pays half the cost of conveying children to and from school in

consolidated districts, when they live too far from the schoolhouse to walk to the school. The legislature also votes $1,000 annually to help poor districts to build new schoolhouses.

(2) COUNTY FUND.—This is a direct tax included in the county assessment, and provides a sum equal to thirty cents per head on the population of the county at the last decennial census. The trustees of every school district receive from the county fund thirty dollars a year on account of each licensed teacher in charge of a department or school. In districts which receive special aid as "poor districts" the amount thus paid is forty dollars per year. After provision is made for the payment of these grants to all the districts in the county in which there are schools, and the payment of $125 per annum to the schools for the blind and deaf for each New Brunswick pupil in attendance thereat, the balance of the county fund in each county is apportioned among the schools of that county in proportion to the attendance of the pupils in each school as compared with that for the schools of the county.

(3) District Assessment.—Any balance required for the support of schools not provided for by the provincial grants and the county fund is met by a direct tax upon the ratepayers of the local school district in which the school is located. Each male resident of the district 21 years and not over 60 years of age, must pay $1.00 as a poll tax, and the remainder of the district assessment is levied by an equal rate on the assessed property and income of the district as given in the parish assessment list.

In cities and towns the money for schools over and above the government and county fund grants is voted by the city or town council and collected with other city taxes.

5. High Schools.

Each county in the province is entitled to a Grammar school, provided the equipment and conduct of the school are up to the standard prescribed by the Board of Education. There may also be one Superior school in each county for every 6,000 inhabitants in it. If the population of a county being divided by 6,000 leaves a majority fraction of the divisor, an additional superior school may be established. Still

another one may be established on the recommendation of the school Inspector. Grammar schools are, and superior schools may be required to complete the High School course which prepares students for matriculation into the University.

6. Consolidated Schools.

When three or more school districts unite to form one district with a central school, providing instruction in manual training and household science, with a school garden, in addition to the regular subjects of the course such a school is called a "consolidated school." In a consolidated district the children living at some distance from the school are conveyed to and from school in vans. The government pays half of the cost of conveyance. It also pays half of the cost of all the equipment for the manual training and household science departments and half cost of the initial supply of materials for them.

7. Boards of School Trustees.

In most of the cities and towns of New Brunswick, the boards of school trustees are appointed by the city or town councils and by

the provincial government. Two of them, one to be appointed by the government and one by the council, must be women. One of the government appointees is designated the chairman.

In the city of St. John the board of trustees is composed of eleven members, five of whom are appointed by the provincial government, and six by the city council. One of each of these groups retires from office at the end of each school year. Trustees whose terms of office have expired are eligible for re-appointment.

In all other cities and incorporated towns under the section of the law which provides for more than three school trustees, there are nine members of the board of trustees, four of whom are appointed by the provincial government and five by the city or town council. The members appointed by the government hold office for four years, or until the end of the fourth school year after their appointment. Those appointed by the city or town council hold office for five years or until the end of the fifth school year following their appointment. Retiring members are eligible for reappointment.

In consolidated schools the number of members of the board of trustees is fixed by the Board of Education, not however to exceed seven. The method of their election or appointment and their tenure of office are fixed by the Board of Education. A minority of them are appointed by the provincial government, and the majority are elected by the ratepayers of the district.

The school year begins July 1st and ends the 30th of June following.

In rural districts generally, the number of trustees in each district is three. They must be qualified ratepayers of the district and reside therein. A ratepayer is a person who is assessed in the parish assessment list on real or personal property or income. A ratepayer is "qualified" at any time when he has paid all school taxes imposed upon him within the preceding twelve months. Trustees in these districts are elected by the votes of qualified ratepayers at the annual school meeting which is held by law on the second Monday in July each year. They hold office for three years. At the first school meeting

in a district three trustees are elected. At the next annual school meeting, one of these, determined by lot, goes out of office, and another is elected to fill the vacancy. At the next annual meeting, one of the two remaining, again determined by lot, retires, and another is elected to fill his place. The next year the third one retires, and another elected to fill the vacancy. Thereafter one man retires each year, after remaining three years in office. A retiring trustee may with his consent be re-elected, otherwise he shall be exempted from serving for three years after leaving office. Women who are qualified ratepayers may vote at school meetings and may be elected trustees.

Under certain circumstances trustees may be appointed by the school inspector.

In cities and towns the boards of trustees are authorized to engage a secretary at an annual salary, the amount of which is fixed by law. In country districts the trustees also appoint a secretary, who receives no salary, but who receives a percentage, not exceeding five, on the amount of taxes he collects from the district.

In all cases trustees serve without reward. A trustee must not be interested in any personal contract with the trustees.

8. Training of Teachers

Persons who intend to become teachers in the public schools of the province, must, after qualifying themselves in the common and high schools, enter the provincial normal school and there secure the special training necessary for a teacher. They must pass an examination for admission to the normal school and another at the end of the session. The normal course begins on the first teaching day in September and lasts about nine months. According to examinations they have passed, teachers are said to hold grammar school, superior, first, second, or third class licenses. The last named is the lowest class and allows the holder to teach in English districts for three years only. French third class teachers' licenses are permanent. An attendance of one session at the normal school is necessary to enable a teacher to secure a class higher than the third. A session is about nine months long. Third class teachers are required to attend normal school for one term or half-year. Graduates of universities and

colleges are allowed to write the examinations for teachers' licenses without attending the normal school. Students under seventeen years of age are not admitted to the normal school.

9. Examinations.

Examinations for entrance to the normal school and for advance of class, are held at various places in the province beginning on the first Tuesday in July each year. At the same time and places the matriculation and high school leaving examinations are held. Applications for admission to these examinations must be sent to the school inspector in whose district the candidates wish to write not later than the twenty-fourth day of May. The admission fee for normal school entrance and advance of class is $1.00; for matriculation and leaving, $2.00.

Candidates for the French department of the normal school may write at the July examinations and also in December, beginning on the second Tuesday in the latter case. Applications for the December examination must be made to the Education Department on or before November 1st. The admission fee is $1.00.

Examinations for teachers' licenses are held at Fredericton, St. John and Chatham, each year, beginning on the second Tuesday in June. Third

class final examinations are held twice in each year at Fredericton, beginning on the Tuesday preceding the week in which Christmas falls and the Tuesday preceding the last Friday in May.

10. The Universities and Colleges.

Students who desire to attend the highest of all the educational institutions of the province, the universities and colleges, may qualify to do so by completing the High School course in one of our grammar or superior schools. The following is a brief description of the universities and colleges of New Brunswick.

(1) The University of New Brunswick.

A college called The College of New Brunswick was established by a provincial charter in 1800. In 1828 this charter was surrendered and in the same year a Royal Charter was granted incorporating the college by the name of King's College. By an Act of the provincial legislature passed in 1859, King's College became The University of New Brunswick.

The University of New Brunswick, located at Fredericton, is a provincial college, supported by government grants, endowments, and fees received from students. Its governing body, called The Senate of the University, is composed of fourteen members, nine of whom including the President and Chancellor, are appointed by the

Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council; four are elected by the Associated Alumni of the University, and one is elected by the Educational Institute of New Brunswick. The President and Chancellor are permanent members of the Senate; the others hold office, some for two and others for three years as provided by law. Members whose terms of office have expired are eligible for reappointment or re-election.

The Chief Superintendent of Education is *ex-officio* President of the Senate of the University. The Chancellor of the University is the chairman of the faculty and the administrator of the affairs of the University. He is appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. The Senate of the University appoints the professors and other officers and fixes their salaries, which are paid out of the revenues of the University.

The University provides a four years' course for degrees. Students of both sexes are admitted to the Arts course on equal terms. The matriculation, or examination for admission, may be written either at the departmental examinations held by the Board of Education in July, or at the opening of the University in September.

The student in any county who makes the highest standing in the July matriculation receives the scholarship of $60 for that county, provided such student attends the University.

The Degrees conferred by the University are:—Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), Master of Arts (M.A.), Bachelor of Science, in the Arts course (B.Sc.), Master of Science, in the Arts course (M.Sc.), Bachelor of Science in Civil Engineering (B.Sc.), Master of Science in Electrical Engineering (M.Sc.), Bachelor of Science in Forestry (B.Sc.), Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), Doctor of Science (D.Sc.), Bachelor of Civil Law (B.C.L.), Doctor of Civil Law (D.C.L.), and Doctor of Laws (LL.D.).

(2) The University of Mount Allison College.

This is a denominational college belonging to the General Conference of the Methodist Church of Canada. It is situated at Sackville. Its internal administration, however, is conducted on non-sectarian principles, and many students from other denominations attend the college.

Its management is vested in a Board of Regents and a Senate.

The University Senate is a body consisting of all the members of the Board of Regents and the Faculty. It is charged with such duties as framing courses of study and conferring degrees. The general management of affairs is entrusted to the Board of Regents. This Board consists of thirty-two members; twenty-four — twelve ministers and twelve laymen—appointed by the General Conference of the Methodist Church, with six representatives of the Alumni Society and two representatives of the Alumnæ Association of the Ladies' College.

The university provides a four years' course in arts, leading to a B.A. degree, students of both sexes being admitted on equal terms. It also provides a divinity course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Divinity (B.D.), and an engineering course leading to entrance on the third year of the course of Applied Science in McGill University and similar institutions.

There are also in connection with the university a Ladies' College, and an Academy for boys. These schools prepare students for entrance into the university. The Ladies' College also provides

courses in Elocution, Painting, Drawing, Music and Household Science.

(3) The University of St. Joseph's College.

This is a chartered college with degree conferring powers, situated at St. Joseph, Westmorland County. It is a Roman Catholic College, under the control and management of a Board of Governors, composed of seven clergymen of the Roman Catholic denomination. It provides a four years' course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), and Bachelor of Literature (B.L.).

Questions.

1. Who are the members of the Board of Education? Who is its chairman?

2. What provision does it make for the establishment of schools.

3. What are the different kinds of schools? What kind is yours?

4. How is the money provided for the support of schools?

5. What is a Consolidated school?

6. How many members are there in the Board of Trustees of your district? Who are they? How did they receive their offices?

7. When are Normal School Entrance and Matriculation examinations held? To whom should application for admission be made? When?

8. What Universities and Colleges are there in the province? How may you be admitted to any of them? How long is the college course?

9. Who is your school Inspector? How often does he visit your school?

10. Who is the Chief Superintendent of Education? Who the Chancellor of the University of New Brunswick?

Duties of the Citizen.

You have in this book been studying chiefly the powers and duties of those who govern. But it must always be remembered that the ordinary citizen has powers and duties as well. He must not sit down quietly, and allow the affairs of state to go on, without feeling that he has some responsibility. Therefore, though you may be only one person in the vast total of the population, yet you have your duties to perform.

The first one is to try to understand as well as you can our system of government, and to keep yourself informed as to all the important acts of those who are in authority. In your study of public affairs you will be led beyond the bounds of the Canadian Dominion, for we have the advantage of living in a country which is part of a great empire. As you come to know better the outside world of nations, the more confident you will be of the value of our position.

Since Canada is now assuming in a definite way the duties of empire, there is a certain imperial feeling that we should strive to develop. The British Empire is so vast that it

contains within itself nations of all languages and all religions. As a citizen of the Empire you should, therefore, have respect and toleration for the opinions of others. Our Empire cannot long continue to exist, unless it is something for which our brother nations may all have an ardent loyalty, whatever may be their creed, race or tongue. This imperial feeling will also help us in our national affairs, for it will enable us to be sympathetic with our fellow citizens throughout the Dominion.

In Canada we have what has been said by enthusiastic observers to be the most perfect constitution yet devised by man. It seems to possess all the advantages of the noble constitution of the American Republic, yet with few of the latter's defects. But constitutions are not worth the paper they are written on, and precedents not worth the time spent in remembering and recording them, if the citizens do not take an interest in the affairs of the state. And the same is true all the way down from national government to the management of the public business of the municipality and of the school division. Therefore, your second duty as a

citizen is to put your knowledge of the nation and its government to practical use by taking an active part in politics.

The most effective way to make your influence felt in politics is to become a member of a party and to attend its meetings. Then you will be able to do something to secure the nomination of good, honest men for parliament and the legislature, and to check the tendency to employ improper means in the conduct of an election campaign. There is often so much at stake in an election, that many men are willing to spend a large amount of money and to make use of all kinds of dishonourable methods rather than run the risk of losing. Moreover, various great business enterprises are ready to contribute money lavishly to election funds, if they have hopes thereby of securing favours from parliament, legislature, or council. So every citizen who loves his country should try to discover and oppose all tendencies to evil-doing in the party to which he belongs.

A third duty incumbent on you as a citizen is to be ready to assist, so far as you are able,

all good causes. You ought never to oppose them by speaking ill of them or by making them objects of ridicule. One of these causes is the thorough education of all citizens. It is the common, everyday people that make the governments, good or bad. Every person should have in his early life an opportunity to receive all the educational training that is possible for him, and within the power of the state to give. It will be found that the remedies for the evils of government and of society do not lie in the under-education of the masses of the people. On the other hand, there is no need to fear over-education, if the instruction given is of the right kind.

Another good cause of which you should speak no ill, is the effort which is being constantly made to lessen the evil of intemperance in our country. Our race from ancient times has suffered injury from the habit of drinking intoxicants to excess. It has become evident that it is at last possible for us to rid our people of this age-long curse. But the most important of all causes which we should support is that of religion. A nation that scoffs at religion is in

grave peril. Nothing can be found to take its place in the life of the people. It seems to be the only force strong enough to resist those tendencies which, if unchecked, will bring on rapid national decay and ruin.

The last duty of the citizen which we have occasion to mention, is that of endeavouring to lessen the cruelty of our civilization. When we read the history of early times, we are overpowered at the amount of suffering that seems to have been caused needlessly. In the ordinary pursuit of business and pleasure horrible and unnatural things were done. Probably some time in the future a similar charge will be brought against our own age. It would be well, if each day every one of us would think of the cruel things that we have seen done or that we ourselves have done, and then try to discover how much of the suffering thus caused might have been prevented. There is hardly any doubt that, if such a course were consistently followed, we should soon have a bright and happy world

Rear up a nation firm and just,
A shrine of Liberty;
Raise up the earth-trod from the dust,
And make them strong and free,
Till none in all her wide domain
Be overwrought by power,
And they from every clime and strain
May bless her natal hour!
The millions in the future's hand
Look with all hope to you.
It is your duty to your land:
Canadians, be true!

Love her who guards you well and brave
Unfeignèd loyally.
It is your right some day to have
With her th' enthroning sea,
The sway of fertile plain and isle,
The swarming homes of men,
Whom to defend and teach meanwhile
'Twill rest upon you then.
Love her howe'er her fate be cast,
And ever faithful do
Your duty to the Empire vast.
Canadians, be true!

APPENDIX I.

Parliamentary Titles.

1. Words that Precede the Name.

We speak of "His Majesty the King," "His Excellency the Governor-General," and "His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor."

The prime minister of the Dominion and the other cabinet ministers (whether at present in office or retired) have, as members of the Canadian Privy Council, the right to be styled "The Honourable." Some, however, have also been made members of the British Privy Council, and have, therefore, the title, "The Right Honourable."

The provincial premiers and the other members of the executive councils are styled "The Honourable."

A member of the Dominion Senate has the title, "The Honourable Senator."

The speakers of parliament and the legislatures have their names preceded by "The Honourable."

2. Letters that Follow the Name.

A member of the Dominion parliament is entitled to the use of the letters M.P. (that is, Member of Parliament).

In many of the provinces a member of a provincial legislature employs the form M.P.P. (that is, Member of Provincial "Parliament"). It may be observed that we do not now apply the term "parliament" to a provincial legislature. Therefore, it would be more correct, if we wrote M.L. (Member of Legislature) or M.P.L. (Member of Provincial Legislature), but these forms have never been adopted.

In Saskatchewan the letters used are M.L.A. (Member of the Legislative Assembly).

In the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, where there are two houses in the legislature, members of the legislative council and those of the legislative assembly are sometimes given the distinguishing titles M.L.C. and M.L.A., respectively.

APPENDIX II.

Suggestions to the Teacher.

This book is intended to provide two years' work in the subject. During the first year the pupil should gain a general acquaintance with our government in its many divisions and learn to understand the meaning of the unfamiliar terms. The second year's work may include, in addition to a more thorough study of the topics treated in the book itself, a little independent investigation of questions of a more advanced character. A short list of such questions is given under Appendix IV. Many others will readily occur to the mind of the teacher. In order to obtain the necessary information pupils should be encouraged to consult the library (there should be one in every school), the newspapers, reports of governments and municipal councils, and their parents or older friends. It will probably surprise the teacher to find what an interest some will take in work of this kind. If a meeting of a mock council or parliament can be organized with the help of the senior scholars, the interest will be greatly increased.

There have been inserted in the book the most famous portions of the political poems of Tennyson. Certain lines in them express so perfectly some of the maxims of government that they are becoming part of our ordinary language.

In teaching civics, the purpose is not so much to load the pupil with knowledge, as to inspire within him a never-dying interest in the affairs of the nation. Hence, do not ask him to learn by heart such lists as occur under Topics II and XII. Rather let him acquire, through frequent reference, a practical acquaintance with them.

APPENDIX III.

A Brief Bibliography.

This list may be useful to the teacher, as it includes the names of books very easily obtained.

1. Necessary Books.

How Canada is Governed, Bourinot. Contains the British North America Act in full.

Canadian Almanac for the current year. Contains lists of British and Canadian cabinet ministers, of members of parliament and legislatures, of judges and

sheriffs, and of municipalities and their officers, the customs tariff in full, and an account of the British Army, the British Navy, and the Canadian Militia.

2. Helpful Books.

The English Constitution, Bagehot. Contrasts the British and American systems of government.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century, Judson. Gives brief accounts of the constitutions of the principal countries of Europe.

School Civics with Civics of New York State, Boynton. Contains the constitutions of the United States and New York.

3. For More Advanced Study.

American Commonwealth, Bryce, 2 vols. Interesting and invaluable.

Canadian Annual Review, Hopkins. The volume for each year gives an excellent account of public events.

Letters of Queen Victoria, 3 vols.

Life of Gladstone, Morley, 2 vols.

(These two books shed light on the development of the English constitution in the nineteenth century.)

The Statutes of the Dominion and the Province. Copies of special statutes may be obtained from the various government offices, or from the King's printer, either *gratis* or on the payment of a small sum.

Canada Year Book, published by the Census and Statistics Office, Ottawa. Contains all kinds of statistical information.

APPENDIX IV.

Subjects for Study.

(For Advanced Pupils.)

TOPIC I.

1. Look up in the dictionary or elsewhere the meaning of the following: aristocracy, aristocratic, democracy, democratic, oligarchy, oligarchic, anarchy, anarchist, socialism, socialist, autocrat, autocracy, autocratic.

2. Find out the names of the rulers of the great powers of the world.

3. Discover something about the government of the countries commonly mentioned in the newspapers.

4. Read the lives of Queen Victoria and Abraham Lincoln.

5. What do you think is the best form of government? Give your reasons.

TOPIC II.

1. To which of the two, the Dominion or the province, belong those powers which are not definitely assigned in

the constitution? Show how our constitution differs from that of the United States in this respect.

2. Discuss the value and dangers of the power of disallowance.

3. Give an account of the negotiations that led up to confederation.

4. "The laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than have the laws of the Dominion." Discuss this statement.

5. Find out what you can about the federal constitutions of the Commonwealth of Australia and the Union of South Africa.

TOPIC III.

1. Give a brief account of the governors-general of Canada since confederation.

2. Compare the duties of the governor-general of Canada with those of the president of the United States and the president of France.

3. What would be the advantages and disadvantages of the appointment of a Canadian as governor-general?

4. Would it be advisable to have the governor-general elected by popular vote?

5. What are the arguments in favour of retaining the Senate?

6. How do you think the Senate could best be "reformed"?

7. What difficulties may arise, if the leader of the government or a large proportion of his cabinet belong to the Senate?

TOPIC IV.

1. Read over the speech from the throne given at the opening of the last session of parliament, and make notes as to its form and contents.

2. What corresponds at Washington to our "speech from the throne"?

3. Give an account of the usual proceedings in the House of Commons on the opening day of the session.

4. Discuss the question of the supremacy of the House of Commons in our system of government.

5. Give an account of the duties of the speaker of the House of Commons.

6. Describe how a debate is conducted in parliament.

7. What are the advantages of committees in the work of the House?

TOPIC V.

1. Trace briefly the origin of the cabinet in English history.

2. Compare our cabinet with the American cabinet.

3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Canadian cabinet as an instrument of government?

4. What difference is there between the position of a premier under our system and that of a president under the American system?

5. What foreign nations have adopted the British cabinet system?

6. Why is it necessary that all members of the cabinet should be in agreement on important questions?

TOPIC VI.

1. Make out a list of important public questions now before the people of Canada.

2. What would be the result in our system of government, if political parties ceased to exist?

3. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the party system of government?

4. What is a coalition government? Have we ever had a coalition government in the Dominion?

5. What were the platforms of the two parties at the last Dominion elections?

6. Write an article favouring the policy of one of the parties.

TOPIC VII.

1. Find how long the last session of parliament lasted. Indicate briefly what business was done during the session.

2. On what dates and in what years are federal elections held in the United States?

3. What would be the result in our system of government, if elections were held on fixed dates as in the United States?

4. How many parliaments have we had since confederation? Find what was the length of each and the year of dissolution.

5. What are the names of the premiers since confederation? How did each come to give up office?

6. Give an account of a by-election, if one has been held in your constituency recently.

TOPIC VIII.

1. What are the names of the present members of the cabinet and their departments?

2. Describe the system of "patronage" and its evils.

3. Is management by a board of commissioners an advantage in the case of a public enterprise?

4. Give a brief account of our militia system.

5. What difficulties have arisen in connection with the civil service?

6. Discuss the problem of "strikes."

7. Write a brief account of the development of our railway and canal systems.

TOPIC IX.

1. What are the dangers of a heavy national debt? What is the amount of the national debt of Canada?

2. What is the annual expenditure of the Dominion? Mention the important items of the expenditure.

3. Would it be advisable to adopt a system of direct taxation for the Dominion? Give reasons for your answer.

4. Discuss briefly the Canadian tariff question.

5. Make a note of the important points in the last budget speech.

6. How are customs and excise duties collected?

TOPIC X.

1. Tell how you would proceed at the bank in depositing money and in withdrawing it.

2. What are the merits of the Canadian banking system?

TOPIC XI.

1. Who are the members of the provincial executive and what are their departments?

2. What are the policies of the political parties in provincial matters?

3. What are the merits and defects of the system of Dominion subsidies to the provinces?

4. Would it be better if the Dominion and the provincial political parties were entirely separate from each other?

TOPIC XII.

1. What is the name, size and population of your municipality?

2. Write a brief history of your municipality since its organization.

3. Describe its physical features and its industries.

4. Who are the members of the council?

5. Give an account of the last municipal election.

6. What are the important questions in municipal politics?

7. Mention some of the property exempt from taxation in your municipality.

8. What are the chief items in the expenditure of your municipality? What is the amount of the expenditure. Is your municipality in debt?

9. Describe the method of assessment in your municipality.

TOPIC XIII.

1. In what judicial district do you live? Who is the sheriff? Who are the judges of the county court? What is the name of the nearest place where court is usually held?

2. Write a note on the police force of your municipality.

3. Mention an important case that has gone to the Privy Council in England for final decision.

TOPIC XIV.

1. Describe your school and grounds. What was the cost of the building? What improvements are most needed, and how much would they probably cost? What has been the cost of the furniture and equipment of your schoolroom?

2. How much money does your school district (division or section) receive in grants, and what is its expenditure? What is the rate of taxation for school purposes?

3. Where is the nearest high school (collegiate institute or academy)? Tell what you can about it.

4. Give an account of the university or universities of the province, and of the agricultural college.

5. What are the advantages of a good education?

The War-time Election of 1917.

Owing to the outbreak of the Great War the Parliament elected in 1911 was not dissolved at the end of five years, but its term was extended to six years. Dissolution took place and an election was held in 1917. For the purpose of this election a special Act, called the War-time Elections Act, was in force. It suspended some parts of the Dominion Elections Act and made certain special provisions. The most important of these provisions were:

No person was allowed to vote, if he became a British subject after March, 1902, and was born in a country at war with us, or was born elsewhere in Europe and his mother tongue was the language of a country at war with us.

A woman having the same qualifications as those required in the case of male voters, was entitled to vote, if she was the wife, widow, mother, sister or daughter of a soldier or nurse on active service with the Canadian or British forces.

Enumerators were appointed under the Act to enter on the voters' list the names of all persons qualified to vote. Candidates were nominated on November 19th and polling took place on December 17th. In the larger cities the poll was opened at 6 o'clock in the morning and was closed at the usual hour. (See page 73). Polling places were provided overseas to enable the soldiers and nurses to cast their votes.

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